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ABSTRACT

This document provides materials for a course in human intergroup relations for preservice or inservice teachers preparing to work with a diverse, disadvantaged group of students. The information in the guide is drawn from the faculty and student support staff of Northcentral Technical College (NTC) in Wausau, Wisconsin, which serves a variety of returning women students, nontraditional learners, single parents, minority groups (especially American Indians and Southeast Asians), and hearing and visually impaired students. The manual is divided into six modules, each of which is a course component. Module A focuses on nontraditional learners and the teaching strategies necessary to ensure the success of the group. Module B describes hearing impaired and visually impaired adult students; support services and potential employment problems as well as strategies for modification or adaptation of curriculum to meet the needs of these students are emphasized. Module C describes the special needs groups served through NTC's GOAL Learning Center. The characteristics of special needs adults and the barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment are explored. Modules D and E focus on sexual harassment, sex equity, and alcohol- and drug-addicted persons. The legalities involved and the support services available are described. Module F identifies the characteristics of limited English proficient students, the support services available to them, and how the cultures of these students affect the teaching and learning environment. Each module lists course competencies, suggested resource personnel, objectives, activities, and provides detailed information sheets. (KC)

ED351465

Certification Requirement #69

Human Intergroup Relations

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NORTHCENTRAL
TECHNICAL COLLEGE
Wausau, Wisconsin

September 1991

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OVERVIEW

HUMAN INTERGROUP RELATIONS

Northcentral Technical College serves a diverse student population who seek job-related skills. Many of the adult returning women are nontraditional learners, displaced homemakers, and/or single parents. Another group of students are minorities (American Indians and Southeast Asians). These populations have unique characteristics and program needs. A third group of NTC's population is the disabled. NTC serves a visually impaired and hearing impaired population that has special needs.

Many students at the technical college are currently at a transit stage in their lives. They need training or retraining because their jobs were eliminated or upgraded or their family situation changed. These transition times are an additional stress to the normal demands of education. It is vital that the instructor be aware of the characteristics of the diverse student population and be able to design a learning environment that will use their characteristics. An awareness and sensitivity to drug and alcohol abuse problems and sexual harassment as they relate to the student and the learning environment is essential if the instructor is to create a learning environment that will meet the needs of the diverse student population.

Resource personnel from within the college (HIP/VIP, Career Development Center, Student Services counselors, Alcohol/Drug Abuse counselors, Affirmative Action officer, English as a Second Language and Nontraditional Learner instructors) have provided written materials for the manual and video selections.

The manual is divided into six components. Module A focuses on the nontraditional learner and the teaching strategies necessary to ensure the success of this group.

Module B describes the hearing impaired and visually impaired adult students Support services and potential employment problems as well as strategies for modification or adaptation of curriculum to meet the needs of these students are emphasized.

Module C describes the special needs groups served through the GOAL Learning Center. The characteristics of special needs adults and the barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment are explored.

Modules D and E focus on sexual harassment, sex equity, and AODA issues. The legalities of these topics plus support services available are described.

Module F identifies the characteristics of the limited English proficient students, the support services available to them, and how the cultures of these students affect the teaching/learning environment.

You will need to keep a journal in which you reflect on the readings in the course manual and the assigned videos--relate your day-to-day professional and personal activities that you have experienced with special needs groups. How are you becoming more sensitive and aware of the needs of these individuals? How do the readings, videos, and activities impact on your awareness?

You will also need to identify the minority or special needs student in your college, provide the demographic information in a written report, and present it to the facilitator.

Final Project: Design a learning environment (unit/lesson plan) in which you apply the sensitivity and awareness you have gained of diverse student populations to your specific area of instruction. Discuss the application of the readings, videos, and activities in writing and then share your unit/lesson plan at the third meeting time.

Attendance requirements are as follows:

1. Orientation - 1 hour
2. Progress/sharing time - 2 hours (group or individual)
3. Presentation of final project - 2 hours

Rosemarie Schulz
Facilitator

COURSE COMPETENCIES

Describe nontraditional students and design the learning environment to meet their needs.

- Identify barriers to success of the nontraditional learner (NTL).
- Identify and describe teaching strategies to improve the success of the NTL.
- Make needed curriculum modifications and adaptations to meet the needs of the NTL.
- Identify and describe supportive services available to provide assistance.
- Describe potential problems the NTL might face in the labor market.

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Neal Gould
Counselor, Business

Jim Hansen
Counselor, Technical and Industrial

Helen Larson
Counselor, Health and Human Services

OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. Choose a counselor from one of the occupational areas to interview.
2. Develop a list of questions for your interview based on the course competencies and objectives.

3. Submit the questions to the course facilitator prior to your interview with the counselor.

4. Share the findings of the interview with the course facilitator at the second progress/sharing meeting.

5. View the video, "Don't Drown in the Mainstream." After reflecting on its message, write your thoughts in your journal.

6. Read the following pages from the course manual:

   A-2 to A-36
   A-42 to A-50

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SUPERVISING ADULTS
WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

TYPES OF ACCOMMODATIONS

- Many employees with **perceptual problems** have difficulties with accuracy, such as reversing numbers and placing words in wrong spaces on a form. Therefore, people with this difficulty may need their material checked for grammar and word or number reversal.
- Individuals with **reading problems** (dyslexia) often "read" printed matter by listening to tapes. They might prefer verbal instructions. It may be helpful if someone takes the responsibility for letting them know about important shop or interoffice written communications. Dyslexic employees might prefer to make phone calls instead of writing letters. For those people who read slowly, extra time should be allowed.
- People with **auditory perceptual problems** often need to work in quiet surroundings. Many learning-disabled people will ask you to repeat or clarify directions and would appreciate either receiving a written copy of your instructions or having the opportunity to repeat them back to you. It helps if you use short simple sentences and enunciate clearly. These individuals often take notes to help them remember. It is helpful to demonstrate exactly what needs to be done, rather than merely describing the task.
- People with **visual perceptual problems** may have difficulty finding objects. They may lose things frequently. This may mean letting them duplicate important documents or even having spare tools or books available. In order to keep track of materials, they may require neat and well-organized surroundings. They may also color-code files and keep items on shelves or bulletin boards, rather than in drawers where they can't see them.
- Most people who have both **auditory and visual perception problems** need to use both of their senses together in order to learn a task. They may require additional time to train. For the most part, they will need the types of accommodations needed by people with auditory and visual perceptual problems. They may have already made satisfactory accommodations on their own.

As with any other employee, watch the learning-disabled person do the task correctly, leave time for questions, and assure them that they can check with you if they have problems.

Some learning-disabled adults will not observe the passage of time in a normal way. They may get so absorbed in their work that they are not aware of what time it is. Reading a clock may be hard for them. These problems may also make it difficult for them to come to work at a specific time. If getting to work on time is necessary in your unit, that must be explained clearly, since he or she may have to overcompensate by coming in early! Otherwise, flextime is a reasonable accommodation for this problem.

Some jobs may involve tasks which the individual is unable to perform. Perhaps these tasks can be reassigned to other employees or eliminated, if they are not essential functions of the job. Such job restructuring can be very profitable to your operation.

Some examples:

1. A manufacturing methods engineer was responsible for locating new equipment for aircraft assembly lines. Because she had difficulty reading and writing specifications and justifications, she was given very few assignments requiring extensive writing. Instead she kept track of machine performance and statistics. This involved use of numbers, a skill in which she was strong.
2. A salesman with dyscalculia (inability to do math) convinced the customer to buy the product, then took the customer and the item to a checker who wrote up the sales slip and used the cash register.
3. A secretary with auditory perceptual problems was excused from answering the phone and from taking messages. Instead of performing these tasks, she did additional typing and also supervised the filing operations.
4. A counselor was great at helping his clients but was unable to do the paperwork. He dictated the work on tapes which were then transcribed by clerical support staff.

HINTS FOR INTERACTION

Basically, you will find the skills required for supervising the learning-disabled person are the same skills needed for supervising other employees except for the need for occasional extra assistance.

1. If your employee has auditory perceptual problems, try to find a quiet place to communicate away from noisy machines. Speak clearly in a normal tone of voice. It may be necessary to repeat the instructions and to segment them, that is, to divide each sentence into short sections and to pause between sections. If the employee has difficulty understanding something, it may be appropriate to repeat the instructions in simpler vocabulary.
2. Find out how the employee wants to receive information. Does he or she want it orally? In writing? Both? If your employee doesn't know, try various options.
3. Keep the work area safe. Hazards such as boxes in the middle of the floor or holes in the rug are especially difficult for people with visual perceptual problems.
4. Be patient. Hurrying creates more errors and problems.
5. Be flexible. Be open-minded to new ways of doing things, providing the productivity of other workers is not overly affected.

6. An occasional word of praise is important to everyone. Encouragement is particularly vital when they are learning something new.

7. Some learning-disabled people may have problems in adjusting socially.

They may have difficulty fitting in and getting along with others. This may be because their perceptual problems give them incomplete information about others and thus they may not interpret body language correctly. For example, if they can't see the small movement a person makes when he or she wants to interrupt them, they may persist in talking. They may be unable to distinguish between a polite, strained smile and a happy smile.

Some learning-disabled people are too energetic (hyperactive); they move too much or walk around a lot. Of course, for some jobs this can be an asset. However, they might also have nervous habits such as tapping pencils, chewing gum, or playing with their keys. They may not understand how these behaviors affect their coworkers.

People with auditory perceptual handicaps might not be able to tell the difference between a joking and questioning tone of voice. Or they may tend to take everything literally. They work so hard to understand the words of a statement that they may ignore the underlying meaning.

SPEECH AND LANGUAGE IMPAIRMENTS

Most speech problems fall into the following four categories: articulation, stuttering and other fluency problems, language, and voice. They usually do not affect educational performance unless an individual's speech presents one or more of the following difficulties: it calls attention to itself; it interferes with communication; and/or it causes the individual to become maladjusted.

Articulation Problems

Articulation problems are the most common speech errors. They involve omissions, substitutions, distortions, or additions of sounds when pronouncing words. Difficulty articulating is common in young children and usually disappears as they mature and become able to produce sounds correctly. However, due to an inability to control the fine muscles required for good speech (sometimes caused by other conditions such as cerebral palsy), poor environmental models, or the lack of appropriate experiences and encouragement, some articulation problems may continue into adulthood.

Fluency Problems

While we all have breaks in the fluency of our speech, severe problems with rhythm, such as stuttering, can seriously interfere with communication. An individual's fluency problems may fluctuate in degree and nature from time to time. Stuttering may disappear for periods of time, or it may vary in how it affects an individual's speech. While there are many theories regarding the causes of these problems and many approaches to dealing with them, no one approach is best for all. The following are some guidelines to follow when working with a student who stutters:

1. Avoid calling attention to stuttering. Let the student finish what he/she is trying to say and maintain good listening habits, such as eye contact and positive facial expressions.

2. Make a special note of the circumstances (discussion, response to teacher's question, etc.) and times when a student's stuttering seems to be most severe. On the basis of each student's particular pattern, minimize troublesome situations and maximize situations in which the student is most fluent.

3. As much as possible, reduce anxiety over speaking situations. If the student is particularly fearful of being called on to answer a question orally, make it clear that he/she would not be called on unless he/she raised a hand. This strategy saves students with stuttering problems from much anxiety.

4. Encourage speaking when all is going well and immediately minimize demands to communicate when stuttering becomes more pronounced.

Language Impairments

Language impairments include difficulty comprehending, expressing, and making functional use of spoken language. These problems generally involve disorders in auditory reception and/or expressive language. Auditory reception is the ability to receive meaning from spoken language. A problem in this area means that the individual does not receive spoken messages correctly. The student may not understand what is being said and may frequently ask to have information repeated. Repeating the message and/or using different vocabulary may help the student to process the information.

Expressive skills refer to the ability to produce meaningful verbal language. Individuals with problems in the expressive area can usually process a message correctly, but they have difficulty responding to it verbally. Expressive problems may affect writing, reading, and spelling, as well as speech.

Additional language impairments include problems with semantics (word meanings and relationships), syntax (sequence of words and sentences), morphological systems (word formations), phonological systems (sound families), and higher level language skills. In many cases, language impairments combine with other speech and language problems and can seriously affect a student's academic functioning.

Voice Disorders

Voice disorders fall into a variety of categories and include voices that are too high, too low, too gruff, too soft, too loud, too nasal, etc. While these problems occur infrequently and have little impact on academic performance, they are of concern because they may interfere with interpersonal communications, cause embarrassment, and present adjustment problems.

Suggestions for working with students with speech and language impairments

1. Accept the student. Focus on developing a positive self-concept by emphasizing strong points.

2. Never pressure the student to respond. An environment should be created that stimulates the student to speak and provides opportunities for responses.

3. Provide a variety of language experiences through which the student can experience success.

4. Remember that you are a language and speech model for the student. Speak in simple sentences; speak slowly, clearly, and enthusiastically.

5. Do not expect the student to speak like you. The student should not be expected to repeat every word that you request.

6. Listen attentively and actively to what the student has to say. Do not look away while the student is speaking.

7. If possible, position yourself at the student's eye level when you speak.

8. Reward student efforts to use a word or phrase meaningfully. The students should be encouraged for their efforts. However, do not expect or demand perfection. Talk with the student, giving a chance for him/her to make a contribution, even if it is difficult to understand.

9. When the student says a word incorrectly, do not correct or criticize. Simply say the word, pronouncing it correctly. In this way, an appropriate model is provided. Do not ask for a repetition.

10. Engage in "self-talk" whenever it is appropriate. Talk out loud about what you are doing.

11. Engage in parallel-talk. That is, verbalize what is happening to the student. Use words to describe the activities. This provides words for the student to think with.

12. Encourage group participation, even if at times it means allowing the student to fill a nonspeaking role.

13. Provide a model of acceptance that other students will follow. Demonstrate by actions that speech impairment makes no difference with respect to friendship or academic status.

In addition to the above, please keep in mind that a speech or language impairment may be the result of an undetected hearing loss. It may be beneficial for the student with speech or language problems to have an audiological examination if one has not been done recently.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

Learning disabilities have been thought to affect only school-age children and to be cured by the time students complete their schooling. However, it is now generally understood that learning disabilities persist into adulthood and may affect an individual in social and employment settings as well as in academic life. The following definition of learning disabilities was developed by the Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities and points out the lifelong impact of the problem along with its effect on nonacademic aspects of life.

> Specific learning disabilities is a chronic condition of presumed neurological origin which selectively interferes with the development, integration, and/or demonstration of verbal and nonverbal abilities.
>
> Specific learning disabilities exist as a distinct handicapping condition in the presence of average to superior intelligence, adequate sensory and motor systems, and adequate learning opportunities. The condition varies in its manifestations and in degree of severity.
>
> Throughout life, the condition can affect self-esteem, education, vocation, socialization, and daily living activities.

While there is no typical profile of a learning-disabled student, most exhibit a significant discrepancy between apparent ability to perform in one or more areas, and actual level of performance. A learning-disabled student is usually someone with average or above-average intelligence whose academic achievement is not consistent with that ability. The student's performance may be highly variable, with fluctuations from subject to subject and class to class. There may be difficulty in reading, writing, spelling, mathematics, talking, thinking, and/or listening.

An official diagnosis of learning disability should be the result of a comprehensive evaluation by a specialist. The following is a description of problems in specific learning processes that a student with a learning disability is likely to encounter. While it is unlikely that one individual would manifest all of these difficulties, they may appear in various combinations and differ in degree. If you are working with a student who you think may have a learning disability, referral to the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation or a community mental health/mental retardation center for an evaluation may be helpful.

Visual Perception

Individuals with visual perception problems may have perfect eyesight but see letters incorrectly or in reverse order. They frequently confuse letters that look alike, such as b and d, and g and q. When reading, they may omit letters, words, or paragraphs, or jumble the spaces between words. Students who cannot discriminate similarities in letters, words, numbers, and geometric forms will experience difficulty and frustration in all aspects of learning. Visual perception problems may also interfere with understanding social cues. This can result in misinterpretation of facial expressions that convey boredom, approval, anger, skepticism, or the end of a conversation or interview.

Auditory Perception

Auditory perception problems interfere with accurate interpretation of information received through the ears. Despite normal hearing, people may have difficulty differentiating between similar sounds (i.e., hear "crashed the car" for "washed the car" or "ninety minutes" for "nineteen minutes"). They may be acutely sensitive to background noises and be unable to screen out traffic, rustling of paper, whispers, or other sounds when listening to an instructor, a conversation, or when trying to concentrate on an activity. Weak auditory perception makes it difficult to master sound/symbol relationships. As a result, many learning-disabled students have difficulty developing work attack skills.

Impaired auditory perception can also make it hard to catch the implications of different tones of voice. Inappropriate reactions can occur when a questioning tone of voice is interpreted as an angry voice, or when a joke is taken as a serious comment.

Spatial Perception

Spatial perception difficulties can produce inaccurate signals regarding where one's body is in space. This affects a person's ability to judge distances, differentiate between right and left, and follow directions. People with spatial problems frequently get lost, even in familiar territory.

Memory

Memory difficulties plague many learning-disabled students. If impressions received by the senses are to be usable, they must be stored by the brain and retrieved when needed. Learning-disabled students are more likely to have problems with short-term memory than with long-term memory. They search endlessly to find words, names, dates, and thoughts that seem lost inside their heads.

Sequencing

Problems with sequencing interfere with understanding the structure of a discussion or a reading passage, or seeing the relationship of main ideas to subordinate ideas. Seeing the correct order of letters in a word or numbers in a column is also difficult. Students who have problems with sequencing information often have difficulty with outlining, performing mathematical operations, choosing priorities, organizing notes, or keeping track of important materials or belongings.

Gross and Fine Motor Coordination

Poor coordination of large muscles (gross motor problems) can result in clumsiness, such as knocking things over and bumping into people and objects. For an individual with these problems, participation in many activities such as sports is often difficult. Poor coordination of small muscles (fine motor problems) can make writing very difficult.

Visual Motor Coordination

Problems with visual motor coordination make it difficult for the hands or feet to obey commands from the eyes, copy words from the blackboard, cut a pattern of a dress, type, or write legibly. Similarly, auditory motor problems interfere with following spoken directions or listening and taking notes at the same time.

Behaviors That May Indicate a Learning Disability

As a result of problems in one or more of the above areas, a learning-disabled individual may exhibit several or many of the following behaviors:

- Demonstrates difficulty in reading, writing, spelling, and/or using numerical concepts with average to superior skills in other areas.
- Has poor handwriting; prints instead of using script; writes with an inconsistent slant; has difficulty with certain letters; spaces words unevenly.
- Has trouble listening to a lecture and taking notes at the same time.
- Is easily distracted by background noise or visual stimulation; is unable to pay attention.
- May appear to be hurried and anxious in one-on-one meeting.
- Has trouble understanding or following directions; is easily overwhelmed by multiple directions or overstimulation; may not understand information the first time it is given and may need to have it repeated.
- Confuses similar letters such as "b" and "d," "p" and "q"; confuses the order of letters in words, reads was for saw, teh for the; misspells the same word several different ways in the same composition.
- Confuses similar numbers such as 3 and 8, 6 and 9; changes the sequence of numbers such as 14 and 41; has difficulty copying numbers accurately and working with numbers in columns.
- Omits or adds words, particularly when reading aloud.
- Has difficulty sticking to simple schedules; repeatedly forgets things; loses or leaves possessions; generally seems disorganized.

- Appears clumsy or poorly coordinated.
- Seems disoriented in space; confuses up and down, right and left; gets lost in buildings; is disoriented when a familiar environment is rearranged.
- Seems disoriented in time (i.e., is often late to class, unusually early for appointments, or unable to finish assignments in the standard time period).
- Misinterprets the subtleties in language, tone of voice, or social situations.
- Displays excessive anxiety, anger, or depression because of the inability to cope with school or social situations.

Suggestions for Working with Learning-Disabled Students

Many learning-disabled adults have never been diagnosed nor have they had the benefit of appropriate training or assistance. While these individuals may have histories filled with frustrations, failure, and disappointment, it is important to note that with support, effort, and determination, ways can be found to accommodate or compensate for many of the difficulties they encounter. For many, simply gaining a better understanding of the problem is extremely beneficial. The following are some techniques and strategies that may be useful when working with a learning-disabled student. Many of these suggestions can be effectively implemented with all students.

1. Break down tasks into small increments of learning and present them to the student in a paced, sequential manner. Present a variety of short assignments.
2. Make sure the student has acquired one skill before presenting the next skill in the sequence of learning tasks.
3. Structure assignments for the student and provide frequent feedback about the quality and appropriateness of work completed.
4. Provide activities that allow the student to experience small successes in order to enhance self-concept.
5. Use as many modalities (sight, hearing, speaking, touch) as possible when presenting material. Making information available through different senses helps students to be active learners and to use their strongest channels to get information.
6. At the same time, try to capitalize on the student's area(s) of strength. For example, if the student is a good listener and can carry out oral directions well, be sure to present materials orally. Teaching through the student's strengths helps to remediate weak areas.
7. Teach new concepts in as concrete a way as possible. It is often easier for learning-disabled students to learn the theory after its practical application.

8. Relate new material to everyday life whenever possible. This can make abstract concepts more understandable.

9. Control the complexity of directions. Many learning-disabled students benefit from having directions broken down into steps, with one step presented at a time.

10. Review and preview. It is extremely helpful to briefly review major points of the previous session and to highlight main points to be covered that day. If possible, reviews and previews should be outlined in more than one way: written on the board or a flip chart, presented orally, and/or outlined in a handout.

11. Consider a nontraditional grading system with reinforcement for appropriate responses. On a composition, for example, provide two grades: one for content (ideas), the other for grammar and structure.

12. Deemphasize timed tests. Provide additional time for task completion to alleviate pressure.

13. Use a directed-reading approach with all assignments involving reading (social studies, science, etc.). Review new vocabulary. Establish a purpose for reading (e.g., reading to acquire specific information, reading to answer specific questions, etc.). Providing a focus for reading may enhance attention.

14. Limit the teaching of new vocabulary to words used in a specific lesson or exercise. Simple drawings and large print can clarify definitions in handouts.

15. Help the student to visualize material. The more a student can visualize as well as hear what is presented, the better the material will be understood. Visual aids can include overhead projectors, films, slide projectors, chalkboards, flip charts, computer graphics, and illustrations.

16. Use color whenever possible. Visual impact is even sharper in color, and color-coding is an aid to learning.

17. Provide opportunities for touching and handling materials that relate to ideas presented. This can strengthen learning.

18. Whenever possible, make announcements in both oral and written forms. This is especially true of changes in the schedule, assignments, or exams.

19. Speak at an even speed, emphasizing important points. If there are three points, it helps to say, "My first point is . . ." and "now, the second important point."

20. Make eye contact frequently. This is important in maintaining attention and encouraging participation.

21. Encourage learning-disabled students to sit in the front of the classroom where they can hear well and have a clear view of the chalkboard.

22. If possible, provide the opportunity to repeat verbally what has been learned as a check for accuracy. This can take place during the lesson or after class.

23. Some learning-disabled students are particularly self-conscious about talking in front of groups. Ask these students questions with short answers, or start the answer, trying not to interrupt once the student begins to respond.

24. As with all students, it is especially important to pay attention to self-concept enhancement when working with learning-disabled students. Opportunities for student success should be maximized.

PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES: AN UPDATE

Thomas K. Fagan and William M. Jenkins

An update of information presented in the original article (Fagan & Wallace, 1979), this article provides more recent figures on handicapping conditions in school-age and adult populations. The title and language usage have been changed to reflect current understanding of the connection between descriptive language and attitudes toward people with disabilities. Changes in federal legislation, interpretations, and their impact are presented. To complement the original article, the update focuses more heavily on adult handicapping conditions and rehabilitation services.

Three principal developments have occurred since the initial implementation of Public Law (P.L.) 94-142 (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act) described in the original article (Fagan & Wallace, 1979): the growth of special educational services to school-age children, the impact of court interpretations of P.L. 98-199 (1983) and P.L. 99-457 (1986). Table 1 provides figures for qualified handicapping conditions supported under federal legislation for the year 1985-1986. Children with handicapping conditions continue to make up approximately 10% of the school-age population; those with learning disabilities, speech impairments, mental retardation, and emotional disturbances make up more than 90% of the population served. The number of children served increased 18% during the first decade of implementation (Fraas, 1986). The proportional categorical distributions are reasonably consistent from state to state.

Department of Education reports have identified modest increases in the number of school-age children served in recent years, though concern has been expressed over the large increase in children classified as learning disabled (127%) and emotionally disturbed (28%), while all other classifications decreased during the first decade of implementation; and the percent of school enrollment served increased from 8.3% to 10% (Fraas, 1986; U.S. Department of Education, 1984). The same reports indicated increasing services at both the preschool (especially ages 3-5) and secondary/postsecondary levels. These figures demonstrate the impact of federal legislation in recent decades. Dunn (1973) reported that pupils enrolled in special education services made up only .10 of a percent of the total K through grade 12 school-age population in 1922, 1% in 1948, and 4% in 1968.

The most recent, and perhaps most dramatic, change is the passage of P.L. 99-457 (Education of the Handicapped Amendments of 1986), the rules and regulations were recently published. The overall impact of this legislation will be to extend services downward to birth and encourage schools and communities into cooperative service provisions for children with disabilities from birth through 21 years. The downward extension includes broader categorical language of "developmentally delayed" and "at-risk" children. The downward extension will have a major impact on services by psychological personnel in the 1990s.

Following the implementation of P.L. 94-142 in the mid-1970s, a substantial period of litigation resulted in greater clarification of several aspects of the Rules and Regulations. For school psychologists and counselors, those related to assessment and nondiscriminatory practice are most relevant: Decisions have also provided for 12-month schooling in selected instances where students with severe disabilities might regress in the summer, the provision of an in-class interpreter for students with hearing impairments, more timely and comprehensive evaluations, and attorney fees in litigations where parents are successful. For the most part, the thrust of the legislation remains the same, as do the basic categorical definitions and sections regarding assessment and due process.

The least restrictive environmental aspect of P.L. 94-142 has resulted in increased attempts to educate children with handicapping conditions in less restrictive settings. Though obvious categorical variations exist, the percentages of children and youth with handicapping conditions served in various settings in 1984-1985 were: regular class (26.73%), resource room (41.61%), separate class (23.76%), separate facility (5.55%), residential facility (1.34%), and other (e.g., correctional, homebound) (1%) (Date File, 1987). Hume (1988) reported Department of Education data indicating that more than nine of ten students with disabilities received special education in regular school buildings. Differing positions have developed regarding the merits of this philosophy and attempts to serve children in regular educational settings. The debate has been sparked by a U.S. Department of Education report (Will, 1986), positions of the National Association of School Psychologists (1985), and others (Wang, Reynolds, & Walberg, 1986), and in a special issue of the Journal of Learning Disabilities (Hallahan, Kauffman, Lloyd, & McKinney, 1988). The controversy relates to the extent and nature of service provision in regular settings and not necessarily to the concept. The debate will continue, and it must be recognized that all placement decisions are intended to be individually determined on the merits of each case and that placement-category-outcome interactions will not be conclusively known from research for many years.

Despite controversy, the implementation of The Education for All Handicapped Children Act continues to proceed as a major improvement of services to school-age children with handicapping conditions. Services to rural areas continue to be of concern despite evidence that the legislation has doubled the availability of psychological services to such districts (Helge, 1980). For most psychological personnel, role and function issues continue to dominate real versus job conditions. Too many school psychologists continue to function predominantly in assessment roles that assist in the identification and eventual placement of children in special education. Too little time is spent on psychologist's functions in consultation and other interventions directed at reducing the numbers eligible and assisting students in returning to regular settings. Research and program evaluation roles are similarly lacking. The forecast, however, is for a reduction and eventual stabilization of traditional roles with other roles gaining in importance. In the authors' opinion, a major conceptual shift is needed, whereby funds are provided for the successful provision of interventions and removal of persons from special educational settings as opposed to their entry into such settings.

TABLE 1
Education of the Handicapped Figures, 1985-1986[1]

Category	Students Served	Enrollment Percent
Mental retardation	597,496	1.347
Hearing impairment	46,453	.105
Speech impairment	1,107,044	2.496
Visual impairment	20,452	.046
Emotional disturbance	333,260	.751
Orthopedic impairment	48,040	.108
Other health impairments	50,535	.114
Learning disability	1,847,856	4.166
Dual sensory impairment	910	.002
Multiple disabilities	69,310	.156
TOTAL	4,121,356	9.291

[1] From Education of the handicapped, October 29, 1986. The categorical names have been changed to reflect more proper usage. Definitions of individuals with handicaps used in special education and rehabilitation programs differ according to the legislation enacted. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 as amended defines handicapped children as: mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech or language impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or other health impaired children, or children with specific learning disabilities, who by reason thereof require special education and related services. On the other hand, the Rehabilitation Act defines an individual with handicaps as: any individual who (i) has a physical or mental disability which for such individual constitutes or results in a substantial handicap to employment and (ii) can reasonably be expected to benefit in terms of employability from vocational rehabilitation services provided pursuant to titles I and III of this Act.

With federally mandated services now into the second decade, interest is shifting toward secondary education and transition services. Recent figures in the Department of Education's Ninth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of P.L. 94-142 in 1987 indicated that over half of high school students with disabilities age 16 years and older graduated with a certificate or diploma in 1984-1985 (Facts You Can Use, 1988). The figures for those dropping out and failing to graduate for other reasons are still unacceptably high (44%). These figures are reinforced by data for 1985-1986 that further identified students with learning disabilities, mental retardation, and emotional disturbance over 16 years of age as most likely to drop out (Hume, 1988). The percent of full-time/first-time college freshman reporting that they have a disability has grown from 2.6% (1978) to 7.4% (1985). These figures signal the importance of education to the later employment status of persons with disabilities and improved accessibility of college education. Vocational rehabilitation, another significant service in the employment preparation of persons with disabilities, is examined in the next section.

TRENDS AND CONCERNS IN VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Trends and concerns in vocational rehabilitation must be viewed from two different, yet interrelated, perspectives: the state-federal vocational rehabilitation (VR) program and the rehabilitation counseling profession. Although the state-federal vocational rehabilitation program is frequently perceived as analogous to the profession of rehabilitation counseling, major differences do exist. The state-federal system is only one of many service delivery systems in which rehabilitation counselors practice professionally; other settings include schools, hospitals, private rehabilitation companies, insurance companies, and rehabilitation facilities (Szymanski & King, 1989). Another major difference between the profession and the state-federal VR program results from the fact that many state-federal VR agencies hire as rehabilitation counselors individuals without preservice preparation in rehabilitation counseling (Hershenson, 1988; Kuehn, Crystal, & Ursprung, 1988). In the following section we examine trends in the state-federal vocational rehabilitation program.

Trends in the State-Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Program

Vocational Rehabilitation Program unemployment or underemployment has been the rule rather than the exception for adults with disabilities. According to the President's Committee on Employment of Persons with Disabilities (PCEPD) (1987), although unemployment ranged nationally around 7%, 65% of working-age persons with disabilities were unemployed in 1984. The major federal agency charged with assisting people with disabilities in preparing for and obtaining employment is the state-federal vocational rehabilitation program. Table 2 provides information on the numbers of individuals with varying disabling conditions whose cases were closed as successfully rehabilitated by the state-federal VR program in 1985. The reader is cautioned that different statutory definitions for disability are employed by the Office of Special Education Programs and the Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA) (Szymanski, King, Parker, & Jenkins, 1989); therefore, Tables 1 and 2 are not directly comparable. In addition, Table 2 reflects only successful closure data and not numbers of individuals who actually received services. In contrast, in 1987, 917,482 people with disabilities received services from the state-federal VR program, including 219,616 whose cases were closed successfully rehabilitated (RSA, 1988).

Changes in rehabilitation legislation during the last two decades have paralleled those of special education in importance and breadth. The 1973 Rehabilitation Act was a significant event in the history of rehabilitation legislation. Among the changes included in the Act were the following: (a) a priority of service for individuals with severe disabilities; (b) the requirement of client participation in individualized planning, evidenced by the individualized written rehabilitation plan; and (c) Sections 501 through 504, which prohibit discrimination against people with disabilities in a wide range of activities where federal funding is involved, including transportation, employment, and education.

TABLE 2

Disabilities of Persons Closed as Rehabilitated by the State-Federal VR Program in 1985[2]

Number Reporting Selected Disabling Conditions	
Total Rehabilitations[3]	
Blindness	227,652
Other visual impairments	8,578
Deafness	10,114
Hard of hearing	6,924
Orthopedic impairments	10,984
Absence or amputation of extremities	47,304
Mental illness	4,970
Alcoholism	38,753
Drug abuse	15,527
Mental retardation	4,008
Epilepsy	28,085
Heart disease	4,352
Digestive system conditions	4,678
Speech impairments	5,451
Specific developmental disorders	1,277
	5,699

[2] Data are excerpted from Characteristics of persons rehabilitated in Fiscal Year 1985 by the Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA-IM-88-23), Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. The table only reflects those individuals whose cases were closed successfully during the 1985 fiscal year. A much larger number of individuals were served, and many continued to be served into the following fiscal year.

[3] The numbers of persons rehabilitated in each category do not add to this number because of the absence of specific disability reports in some data and the inclusion in this table of only selected disabilities.

Other significant events in recent rehabilitation legislation included the following: (a) the 1978 addition of Independent Living services for persons who may not be employable (Jenkins & Odle, 1980) and (b) the addition in 1986 of supported employment services for persons with severe disabilities who may require ongoing support in order to maintain employment (Szymanski & Parker, 1988). The 1986 amendments also included, for the first time in a major revision, the statutory provision that rehabilitation services be provided by "qualified personnel" (Rehabilitation Act Amendments, 1986). Although debate continues regarding the definition of the term qualified (Walker & Myers, 1988), recent research by Szymanski and Parker (in press) supports qualification at the master's degree level in rehabilitation counseling or related disciplines.

Although school-to-work transition planning for students with disabilities has been considered a priority planning area in rehabilitation services, the nature of the differences between special education and rehabilitation services has brought about mixed results. During one recent period, transitional services provided through cooperative work-study programs actually decreased as a result of competing special education and rehabilitation regulations. While VR transition services for students with severe disabilities appear to be a major legislative consideration, there is some concern that the combination of educational trends and the VR priority of service for persons with severe disabilities may result in decreased availability of transitional programs for students with mild disabilities (Szymanski & King, 1989; Szymanski et al., 1989).

Trends and Concerns in Rehabilitation Counseling

Trends in the profession of rehabilitation counseling have been even more diverse than those in the state-federal VR program, perhaps due to the multiple settings in which rehabilitation counselors practice. Some trends that are relevant to this special issue include school-to-work transition, traumatic brain injury, services to people with life-threatening illnesses, and the growing involvement of rehabilitation counseling in the private sector.

School-to-work transition. Just as school-to-work transition has been a concern in the state-federal VR program, so too has the topic been of importance to the profession of rehabilitation counseling. Interest appears divided into the following areas: (a) service delivery system coordination (Daniels, 1987; Johnson & Atkins, 1987; Kortering & Edgar, 1988; Tooman, Revell, & Melia, 1988; Wright, Emener, & Ashley, 1988); (b) services for specific populations (Langone & Gill, 1986; Schmitt, Growick, & Klein, 1988); and (c) the functions of the school-based rehabilitation counselor (Szymanski, 1984; Szymanski & King, 1989).

Despite the concern for transition evidenced in federal legislation, many students with disabilities "transition" from school to unemployment (Eleventh Institute on Rehabilitation Issues, 1984; Johnson & Atkins, 1987). Although various authors have considered the transition problems for specific disabilities, for example, mental retardation (Langone & Gill, 1986) and learning disabilities (Schmitt, Growick, & Klein, 1988), Szymanski and King (1989) have approached the problem from a more systemic approach. They contend that, although rehabilitation counseling is now considered a related service in special education (House Report 99-860), its original omission in P.L. 94-142 resulted in unfamiliarity and lack of widespread usage of this professional resource. According to Szymanski et al. (1989), "professional rehabilitation counselors employed directly by school systems are bound by the eligibility and programmatic requirements of special education rather than rehabilitation legislation. Such individuals may not only assist in the special education-VR interface but may also be major sources of transition planning for special education students who are not eligible for VR services." Thus answers to the transition dilemma may rest not only in better service delivery coordination but also in increased utilization of rehabilitation counseling resources.

Traumatic brain injury. There has been a dramatic increase over the past decade in the number of persons with traumatic brain injury (TBI). An estimated 700,000 Americans receive severe head injuries yearly. The majority of these are men (2:1 ratio) who are age 15-24. Because of medical advances, the survival rate has increased fourfold in the last twenty years (McMahon & Growick, 1988). The dissemination of information and provision of services to clients with TBI has thus become a major focus of rehabilitation counseling

(McMahon & Fraser, 1988). Information from research, training, and service delivery programs shows that appropriate educational and vocational programs for people with TBI and their families are complex and require a coordinated system of services that may include medical, psychosocial, family, vocational, educational, cognitive, communicative, and recreational areas.

The high percentage of child and youth survivors of TBI (42% under age 20; 70% under age 30) (Fraser, McMahon, & Vogenthaler, 1988) necessitates greater coordination of special education, vocational education, and rehabilitation counseling to provide appropriate services. This was recognized in a 1985 cooperative agreement between the National Head Injury Foundation, the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, the Council of State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation, and the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (McMahon & Fraser, 1988).

Traumatic brain injury may be mild, moderate, severe, or catastrophic, accompanied by varying degrees of permanent physical, cognitive, and psychosocial impairment. Even a mild head injury can cause subtle but significant cognitive impairments, and quite often TBI persons can never return to their previous level of functioning. The usual educational placement for the obvious TBI person is in programs for students with mental retardation, learning disabilities, or emotional disturbances. Return to the former classroom situation or to prior job placement is likely for persons with less apparent damage (Twelfth Institute on Rehabilitation Issues, 1985). In these cases, the apparent return to "normalcy" of the student or worker may hinder the teacher's, parent's, and employer's recognition of the learning and attentional deficits or psychosocial problems that exist. Technical assistance and in-service training are therfore quite important for the teacher or employer and fellow workers. Involvement of the vocational rehabilitation counselor as a coordinator of provision of services for the educational and vocational needs of the TBI student is recommended, as is involvement in specific family counseling (McMahon & Fraser, 1988).

Life-threatening conditions. Life-threatening conditions are those physical conditions, illnesses, or diseases that are likely to cause untimely death. Such conditions include acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS), neoplastic diseases (cancer), amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), coronary heart disease, cystic fibrosis, sickle cell anemia, Duchenne muscular dystrophy, end-stage renal disease, and stroke.

These conditions (in 1980) included less than 3% of rehabilitation case closures (Allen, Dolan, Miller, & Millard, 1988), which signals a need for the state-federal VR program to provide appropriate services to this population, especially to persons with cancer and their families. "The intense fear that this disease evokes, coupled with its ever-increasing incidence and the enormous expense to the individual and society, dictate that efforts be directed toward understanding the psychological, social, and physical implications of cancer" (Dolan, Allen, & Bell, 1988, pp. 183-184). The quotation is equally applicable to AIDS. The recent reactions of parents, educators, and the general public in regard to the presence in the classroom of young children with AIDS demonstrate as never before the need for agencies and disciplines to cooperate in providing more adequate educational preparation for working with all persons with life-threatening conditions and their families.

Survival rates for many of these conditions are increasing, causing an increase in numbers of persons needing services to facilitate adjustment to the disease, its effects, and the effects of its treatment, and to help the client and family cope with anxiety and fear. Barriers to service provision to these persons include the physical condition of the individual; attitudes of family, neighbors, fellow students, or coworkers and employer; policies of the school system, agency, or business; the person's own psychosocial adjustment to the condition; and the training, competence, and attitude of rehabilitation and educational professionals. Rehabilitation counselors and all others working with individuals with life-threatening conditions need more adequate educational preparation for working with this population and need to examine their own values, beliefs, and attitudes.

Private sector rehabilitation services. Many people with disabilities are now being served by rehabilitation counselors in the private sector, rather than in governmental or nonprofit settings. There has been accelerating growth in this area over the past 15 years (Matkin & Riggar, 1986). Provision of vocational rehabilitation services in private industry has been called "the single most significant development in rehabilitation since the rapid growth in the field following World War II" (Taylor, Golter, Golter, & Backer, 1985, p. ix). Private sector employment of rehabilitation counselors is changing the structure of the field, affecting training program content, job roles, and work functions (Matkin & Riggar, 1986).

Initial acceleration of growth in this sector resulted from several federal actions, including the Occupational Safety & Health Act (OSHA) and its National Commission Report (1972) and the subsequent (1973) Policy Group Task Force Recommendations (Howell, 1983; Lynch & Beck, 1987). Growth of additional service needs by the private sector was spurred by California's first state mandatory workers' compensation vocational rehabilitation law (1975), and other states followed suit (Matkin, 1985).

SUMMARY

Private sector employment of rehabilitation counselors will help in the provision of appropriate services to many persons with disabilities who would not otherwise be reached. Currently, private sector vocational rehabilitation professionals are primarily involved in the rehabilitation of workers' compensation and other industrial claimants. Other types of industrial services include affirmative action consultation; forensic services as expert witnesses in areas such as personal injury, medical malpractice, and Social Security; outplacement counseling (assisting displaced workers); employee assistance programs (in areas such as health and personal problems and work adjustment problems); as well as the recruitment of qualified disabled persons (Howell, 1983; Matkin, 1983). Some licensed counselors and school psychologists have also moved into the private sector, a trend of the 1980s for traditional government agency-based providers. Thus, in the past 10 years we have observed the expansion of services to people of school age and beyond who have disabilities, concern for selected areas in adulthood disability, and service provision in nontraditional settings.

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COUNSELING PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES: SUMMARY AND PROJECTIONS

Judy H. Lombana

The author summarizes the findings of the other articles in this feature in terms of progress made during the last decade, as well as problems remaining. The author proposes several idealistic scenarios for counselors and other human development specialists to use as guidelines for future work with people who are disabled.

Since the 1975 passage of P.L. 94-142 and subsequent related legislation, counseling and human development services directed toward individuals with disabilities have changed in some ways and remained stagnant in others. In order to explain the context within which professional counselors operate, I review several of the more significant changes that have been discussed in depth by the other authors in this issue. Following this synopsis, I describe some of the areas that remain problematic and then provide several ideal projections for the coming decade.

RECENT SIGNIFICANT ADVANCES

One of the most far-reaching changes concerning people with disabilities relates to the terminology used to describe those individuals. A growing sensitivity to the needs of the people affected is a significant result of nondiscriminatory semantics. However, the changes represent much more. They offer, in addition, a symbolic and linguistic description of how individuals are to be regarded, treated, and integrated into society. It is easy to look back 20 years and imagine with horror the symbolic representation that occurred when individuals with different degrees of mental retardation were referred to, in the clinical literature, as idiots or imbeciles! Under the shroud of such ominous terminology, is it any wonder that they were feared, avoided, and treated as less than human? Slowly but progressively, our terminology has become less toxic and more accurate, mirroring society's growing acceptance. During the past 10 years, for example, we have moved from referring to the disabled to disabled people to people with disabilities. This language represents a change in attitude in which people were viewed only in terms of their limitations to a stage in which they were seen as individuals, albeit limited ones, to the current view that people with disabilities are simply that; that they are no more homogeneous than "people with black hair."

I believe this important change in terminology indicates a movement in society toward equity and bonding--a movement that has surely been sought by virtually all oppressed populations. The question, of course, remains: Now what? How do we in the human services professions maximize and extend the momentum of attitude change? And, more important, how do we translate attitude change into action? The manner in which we choose to address these questions may well determine the nature of services we provide to persons with disabilities in the coming decade.

In addition to attitudinal changes represented by the evolution of terminology, there have been several significant areas of movement that are more concrete. As Fagan and Jenkins (1989) pointed out, the number of children with disabilities served has escalated dramatically during the past 10 years. The vast increase in the numbers of identified students as learning disabled and/or emotionally disturbed can be viewed from several perspectives. Some authorities will worry that educators are needlessly labeling children in order to remove them from the regular classroom or to support school and district efforts to maximize federal funding for special programs. However, there exists the equally logical possibility that school personnel are simply more knowledgeable about the characteristics associated with learning and emotional difficulties and are identifying students more appropriately than in previous years. In support of this contention is the fact that standards for psychological testing have been improved and that updated and renormed cognitive measures are now available (Guidubaldi, Perry, & Walker, 1989).

Litigation, especially by parents, is on the rise, another situation that can be examined from several perspectives. We can view it with alarm and attempt to tighten controls within the school system or we can gratefully acknowledge that parents have become more sophisticated and less likely to accept diagnoses or treatment without solid evidence. They have certainly become more vocal in insisting on their rights and the rights of their children to receive specific services. For years educators have bemoaned the "lack of involvement" of parents of children with disabilities. Now, at least, parents and educators are attempting to forge working relationships. A period of disagreement, sometimes expressed through litigation, is likely a necessary and healthy stop in the process of understanding other views and reaching acceptable solutions.

The fact that private vocational rehabilitation services are rapidly increasing adds further evidence that the public is becoming more aware of services available, and that in some areas, at least, the needs of many previously neglected groups of individuals are slowly being assuaged. The increase in numbers of children identified and served, the expanding involvement and vocalization of parents, and the increase in private human services agencies can all be viewed as signs of significant progress in the provision of counseling for people with disabilities. An issue remaining for those of us who provide those services concerns the manner in which we will choose to bring together the various groups to maximize cooperation and communication and to ultimately strengthen the offerings of each group.

Related to the increasing involvement of parents and the private sector is another positive change that has occurred to a limited extent during the past several years. As Humes, Szymanski, & Hohenshil (1989) mentioned, legislation mandates interagency cooperation, which leads to accompanying focus on a transdisciplinary approach. For the better part of this century, professionals in the counseling and human development fields have remained strongly parochial and have closely guarded their expertise, resulting in services that are frequently disjointed and narrow. The suggestion that rehabilitation counselors be employed by school districts may be a jarring thought to many, but when we look beyond our own psychological barriers and defenses, it makes ultimate good sense. School represents the institution where children gather on a consistent and long-term basis; the facilities are available and usually comprehensive; and the opportunities for collaboration and cooperation are boundless. Employing rehabilitation counselors by school districts certainly represents one way of making "interagency cooperation" a practical reality. Of course, translation of good ideas into ongoing programs takes time, planning, and leadership. We are now at the point at which these issues need to be addressed. We must ask ourselves whether we are willing to make the commitment, and, if we are, who shall take the leadership?

PROBLEMATIC AREAS IN COUNSELING PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

In spite of the fact that movement has occurred, especially in the areas of attitude and awareness, statistics are dismal when one examines factors that affect the lives of individuals with disabilities on a daily basis. Of particular concern is the finding, graphically described by Brolin and Gysbers (1989), that vocational education and job placement services for individuals with disabilities have produced few significant results in the past 10 years. Particularly when one considers the vast sums of money that the federal government, states, and private foundations have poured into upgrading career education and job opportunities, it is disheartening to learn that people with disabilities are, for the most part, unemployed. Those who are employed are grossly underemployed, with the vast majority earning only minimal wage in menial positions. It is difficult to ascertain whether the primary problem lies with the schools, which are not providing adequate career development or appropriate curriculum; with students and their parents, who may be ignorant of opportunities or choose not to pursue them; or the labor market, much of which embodies a residue of discrimination that can prohibit people with disabilities from advancing.

Examining the problem from the perspective of the school, it is apparent that guidance counselors and other student services personnel have gained little, if any, credibility in terms of their roles with students with disabilities. As Humes and his colleagues (1989) stressed, most counseling is still provided by special education teachers rather than certified and designated school counselors. The age-old dilemma of the real versus the ideal role of the school counselor persists because it has not yet been resolved. Until the issue is settled, counselors will continue to be powerless in their work with students--particularly students who are unassertive in seeking assistance. The simple fact is that counselors are not counseling nor are they providing adequate career guidance to students with disabilities. Literally hundreds of surveys have examined this issue in an attempt to get at the root of the problem, and few concrete results have been found. Shall we blame principals who designate tasks such as scheduling and testing? Perhaps the special education coordinator who insists that counselors handle the paperwork, observation, and many small jobs associated with IEP meetings is at fault. Or does the primary blame lie with guidance personnel themselves, who often acquiesce to clerical or quasiadministrative roles instead of insisting on tasks consistent with their training? It is probable that much of the reluctance of counselors to become involved with students with disabilities stems from the fact that most counselor education training programs have inadequately prepared counselors to deal with students who may have special needs (Hosie, Patterson, & Hollingsworth, 1989). In reality, it does not matter who is most "at fault." Regardless, students, and particularly students with disabilities, are not receiving the attention they need to help them make the transition from school to the workplace. There are certainly indications that a focus on interdisciplinary counseling, particularly between school and rehabilitation counselors, can help alleviate the problems. However, since school counselors are most closely identified with the school arena and, in addition, view themselves as the primary helping professionals within the school, the ultimate responsibility for change must lie with them.

There are, of course, mitigating circumstances and formidable obstacles that counselors and other human development specialists must face within the school environment. One real problem that counselors have faced since students with disabilities began to be mainstreamed in large numbers concerns training. In addition to the preservice difficulties addressed by Hosie et al. (1989), it is commonly known that few in-service training dollars associated with special education legislation have found their way to the guidance office. Consequently, most counselors have received little, if any, on-the-job training to enable them to work more effectively within the special education realm.

FACING THE FUTURE IN COUNSELING PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

As we review the progress of the past decade in educating and providing human development services to persons with disabilities, it becomes apparent that in some very concrete ways we have been successful in identifying their needs and sensitizing the general population to those needs. These are certainly essential steps in the process of enabling people with disabilities to become integrated into society. But what can we accomplish in the next 10 years? The time has come to take advantage of the fact that progress in terms of funds and attitudes has been made; now we need to initiate some solid, action-oriented programs that will help people with disabilities gain more psychological and economic control over their own lives.

Undergirding all of our work with persons with disabilities must be a philosophy consistent with the points raised by Hulnick and Hulnick (1989); namely, that it is more helpful and accurate to view disabilities as functional limitations rather than as problems to be overcome. If we can come to a point where we accept the notion that all of us possess functional limitations in one area or another, we can stop thinking in terms of providing "different" services for people with disabilities. Instead, we can build on the skills we already possess and think in terms of changing the environment in ways which would benefit everyone. With this philosophy in mind, listed on the following page are some idealistic scenarios for counselors and other human development specialists to use as guidelines for future work with people with disabilities.

- We will not need terminology related to disabilities at all. Since people are all functionally limited in some way, language which describes them as blind or learning disabled is usually discriminatory and serves to separate and divide people rather than to join and bond them.

- When we dispense with discriminatory language, we will pave the way for individualized instruction and services for everyone. Gone will be self-contained classes except for the most extreme situations. The vast majority of persons with disabilities will be educated no differently from their nondisabled peers. All students will have IEPs that will guide their academic, personal, and career programs to adulthood.

- The advances that have been made in assessment during the past decade will be carried further: computerization will increase the efficiency of the process, assessment will focus on on-the-job measures, and functional assessment will become a standard for all clients. Thus, measurement in all areas will move from the identification stage to an intervention mode.

- School counselors will assume responsibility for counseling all students, regardless of their functional limitations. Principals and other administrators will become educated regarding this new role and will be supportive when they view it in practice. Most counseling will be short-term, utilizing efficient strategies that embody a variety of mediums. Individuals requiring long-term psychotherapy will be referred to community resources.

- Preservice and in-service training will focus on ways to empower counselors and other human services professionals to modify the environment so that the needs of students are met. This training will include practical means of incorporating career development into the daily lives of students.

- Although guidance personnel will assume the overall responsibility for counseling, other professionals will become active members of the helping team. In this regard, teachers, administrators, and others will work to broaden the curriculum to reflect the real-world needs of students. Marketable skills and job placement will become integral aspects of the curriculum for all students.

- Rehabilitation counselors will become an integral part of the student services team within the school setting. Their focus will be on working with those students who are the most severely disabled, as well as providing education and support to school counselors, teachers, and others who have less training and knowledge in specific areas of disability.

The scenarios presented above may appear idealistic and impossible to attain at first glance. Yet a closer look will show that they represent achievable goals that human services professionals have been advocating for many years. At this point, two crucial questions remain: How can these goals be accomplished? And who should assume responsibility?

Of course, there are no easy or singular answers to these questions. However, it seems that if we counselors and human development specialists believe strongly that these changes are needed, then it is incumbent on us to seek solutions and initiate action. One possible forum is AACD, our primary professional association. Through this medium, a task force of concerned and committed individuals representing various viewpoints, work settings, and interests could address these issues in detail and develop a working plan of action to present to professionals throughout the country.

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LEARNING DISABLED ADULTS IN POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION
from HEATH Resource Center

Increasing numbers of students with learning disabilities are attending American colleges and universities. Over fourteen percent of all freshmen with disabilities report that they are learning disabled, according to the **American Freshman: National Norms for 1986**. Disabled Student Service providers also report that the number of learning disabled students continues to increase dramatically on their campuses. Over 40% of the inquiries to HEATH addressing a specific handicap concern learning disabilities. The number of children identified and specially educated in the public schools as learning disabled has grown from 800,000 in 1976-77 to nearly 2,000,000 in 1985-86, according to the **Eighth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act** (PL 94-142).

Several factors are responsible for the continued increase in participation of learning disabled people in postsecondary education: improved identification of children who are learning disabled, provision of appropriate special education in elementary and secondary schools, the "coming of age" of those who were provided an education with necessary support services, and the growing awareness in postsecondary institutions that providing necessary support services for such students may allow them to succeed in college, technical, and beyond.

Federal and state legislation provided a great impetus to the identification and appropriate education for disabled children, including those with learning disabilities. The Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 mandated that all children be provided an "appropriate free education" and authorized money to the states for that purpose. The regulations clarifying Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 were issued in 1977. Section 504 prohibits recipients of federal funds (most public and private postsecondary institutions) from discriminating because of handicap, and the Regulations specify in detail how recipients must comply with the law. The January 19, 1981, regulations to implement the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, as amended, include within the definition of severely handicapped those individuals who have a specific learning disability, thus allowing such persons to be eligible for vocational rehabilitation services, when there is evidence of serious, functional limitation and a need for multiple vocational rehabilitation services over an extended period of time.

Improved identification, appropriate special support services, and greater awareness of the problems and successes of learning disabled students have made learning disability the handicap about which most inquiries are made to the HEATH Resource Center. This paper has been developed to answer many of these questions. Learning disabled students, their parents and advocates may find the information which follows useful in planning ahead for education after high school. Administrators, instructors, and support staff at both secondary and postsecondary institutions may learn about ways to initiate and/or improve services to learning disabled students. Vocational Rehabilitation counselors may become aware of the many possibilities which are now available to their learning disabled clients and may be able to utilize the resources included at the end of this fact sheet.

The handicap of learning disability is described and a brief checklist presented for those unfamiliar with the condition. A discussion of options after high school leads to the heart of this paper--what is available for learning disabled students in colleges and universities. While the entire paper is directed to all of the groups mentioned above, the main section, **Locating the Appropriate School**, is directed to the student. Annotated information about standardized testing, recorded texts, and selected resources conclude the paper.

LEARNING DISABILITY - THE HANDICAP

Learning disability, LD, is a hidden handicap. Unlike the person who uses sign language or walks with crutches, the learning disabled person shows no visible characteristics of the disability. The casual observer does not realize that difficulty in processing information causes the person to cope differently from others in learning and living situations. The difficulty in processing information may also influence the person's performance. One who can think logically and clearly may nonetheless be physically unable to write out a simple paragraph. In fact, one of the handicaps associated with learning disabilities is inconsistency of performance. A perfectly articulate, informed person may be unable to read a set of instructions. One who can organize a complicated set of arrangements on the telephone in order to achieve a desired goal may become hopelessly confused in a chattering classroom, supermarket, or a metropolitan transit system. LD individuals who have had difficulty interpreting facial expressions, tone of voice, and other body language may not have learned appropriate skills to manage many of life's social situations.

By adulthood many of the psychosocial aspects of the disability may have begun to take their toll and may be equal in importance to the problems educators had focused on in a person's early years in school. Repeated failure to achieve success in school and with friends may have led to low self-esteem. Inability to sustain interpersonal relationships may have led to social isolation and/or poor judgment in selecting friends. Stresses of covering up the disability may diffuse energies better spent in searching for and using learning styles. Therefore, feelings of anxiety, inadequacy, and frustration are not uncommon among LD adults. Frequently people whose learning disability is not diagnosed until adulthood are relieved to find that their frustrations have a name and that there are ways to deal with them.

Most professionals agree that learning disability refers to perceptual handicaps present at birth or from early childhood due to causes other than impairment of vision, hearing, mobility, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, or environmental disadvantage. A learning disabled person is not retarded. LD adults have normal or above-normal intelligence, a factor which helps many devise extraordinary coping mechanisms to hide or overcome the disability.

OPTIONS FOR EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

All students, not just those with disabilities, need to evaluate carefully all the options available to them after they finish high school. Some things to consider are academic qualifications, academic or vocational goals, financial resources, and personal interests. The educational alternatives available after high school include four-year colleges and universities, junior and community colleges, vocational or technical schools, thirteenth year or residential training, home study, and adult education. (For descriptions of each of these types of programs, write for the free HEATH fact sheet Education Beyond High School--the Choice is Yours! or subscribe to Information from HEATH (newsletter) which describes new campus ideas. Educational programs can be adapted for students with specific learning disabilities. In order to assess strengths accurately, all students--and especially those with learning disabilities--should explore interests, hobbies, and recreational activities. LD students who may frequently meet failure in academic work may find success in other areas. For some, careers in technical or scientific fields which require less verbal skill than other areas may be appropriate choices. Consult two other HEATH fact sheets: Strategies for Advising Disabled Students and Access to the Science Laboratory and Classroom. If a vocational program is your preference, you might find suggestions in another HEATH fact sheet, Education for Employment helpful. A number of young adults are using the resources of a center for independent living as they explore future options (see ILRU listed in Selected Organizations). The rest of this paper will deal with learning disabled students who decide to go on to universities and two- or four-year colleges.

FOCUS ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Types of Programs for LD Students

American colleges and universities provide a variety of options for students with learning disabilities. Those that include LD students in their population generally fall into one of these categories:

The Prep Program may be a pre-college year, semester, or summer program, and is usually offered on a college campus, but may also be in a secondary setting. Emphasis is on diagnosing strengths and individual learning styles, thus, study skills and organization are taught. There is usually a large component of individualized counseling leading to choice of and application to college. Prep Programs are generally very small so that class size of 3 to 6 students is not unusual. They often include psychotherapeutic services (fee for which may be covered by medical insurance). Tuition/room and board may reflect all of these elements.

LD Program in College or University. Often there is a separate admission to the LD Program. A strong emphasis is placed on individual counseling, academic advising, and identifying personal and educational strengths. An LD specialist usually coordinates the program or is on staff. Diagnostic evaluation may be part of the program. Students usually take some regular classes in the college--for college credit. Frequently one or two noncredit courses specifically designed to enhance skills are part of the program. The social skills are often addressed in the form of peer counseling and structured opportunities for social interaction. The goal of the LD program is to teach LD students how to manage their disability, and provide the necessary support services so that the student ultimately can function in the regular campus program, earn a degree, and handle life situations. Because of the individualized nature of the LD programs, there is often a fee in addition to the regular tuition.

Regular Campus Program. Many colleges and universities admit LD students under their regular admissions process which may be either by "open enrollment" or a selective procedure. Nearly all American campuses have some sort of support services and/or tutoring available to all students. While there is no special program for LD students, those who need adaptations, auxiliary aids, or tutoring may register with the Disabled Student Services Office or the Dean of Students where appropriate modifications can be arranged. For instance, instructors might agree to have their lectures taped by the student or give untimed exams in a quiet room so the student can tape the exam answers. Students who succeed in this regular setting are those who are used to managing their disability, are fairly assertive about their needs, and who are strongly motivated to succeed.

Verification of LD and Types of Accommodations

In a postsecondary program where a learning disabled student needs and expects to receive/use adaptations, verification of the disability is usually required. On many campuses there is an office or a delegated official who is responsible for services to disabled students. The Special Service Office or Disabled Students Office or Enablers--all various names for such offices (or, if no special office exits, contact the Dean of Students)--usually requires a student to register for services. At that time a student may present documentation which verifies that he/she has a disability. Diagnostic testing and assessment by a neurologist, educational counselor, or other professional are usually sufficient so long as they have been done within the last two or three years. Registration is voluntary, but services are usually provided only to those registered.

Once registered, the student and the designated campus official can determine what adaptations and special arrangements may be necessary and available. The Special Services Office usually arranges for the services, and can frequently intervene for a student with faculty who may be resistant to accepting classroom changes. Support services which are usually available on any campus which admits LD students include the following: advising, readers, study carrel in library, letters/meeting with instructor, scribes, tape recorders in library, notetaker, lab assistance, study skills consultation, tape-recorded texts, exam time extension, referral.

Generally those support services which provide access to the program are available at no cost to the student. The services listed above, therefore, are usually free to the student. Services, aides, and devices which are of a personal nature--for personal use and study--such as individualized LD tutorial, extensive counseling by LD specialist, diagnostic prescriptive testing--are often provided on a fee basis.

LOCATING THE APPROPRIATE SCHOOL--A GUIDE FOR STUDENTS

Selecting the appropriate college or university from among the thousands of choices in the United States is an overwhelming task for most people. Various criteria must be used to narrow the possibilities. Such considerations as location, distance from home, cost, campus setting, as well as academic preparation, competitiveness, and average standardized admissions testing scores all can serve to narrow the possibilities. For such students with learning disabilities, the choice can be narrowed further by determining what general type of program is suitable at the time (Prep, LD, or Regular, see above), and then searching for those in the location, with a good program in major field of interest, in affordable cost range, etc., determined beforehand.

Directories

HEATH Resource Center staff members are frequently asked if there is a "list" of schools which serve learning disabled students. The staff are hesitant to endorse a list which would imply that only those schools on the list serve learning disabled students. After reading the information provided above, however, students and advisors may find a listing of schools a suitable starting point for an investigation into available options. Existing programs can also serve as resources for other campuses. Readers should be aware that the time-consuming process of preparing a directory often results in publication of outdated material and that many directories simply collect and print minimally edited and unverified survey results. Additionally, HEATH staff feel that students, parents, and others can obtain more accurate and personalized information by using a program evaluation handbook such as the HEATH publication How to Choose a College: Guide for the Student With A Disability, or Unlocking Potential: College and Other Choices for Learning Disabled People reviewed later in this paper. With these cautions stated, the HEATH Resource Center lists the following directories and their sources. Before purchasing any of these directories, be sure to check your local library or high school guidance office.

The BOSC Directory of Facilities for Learning Disabled People, compiled and edited by Irene Slovack (1985) is a concise guide for persons who are seeking information about schools and training programs for young persons who are learning disabled. The **Directory** describes facilities for learning disabled youth from ages three to 21, and lists both residential and day programs for LD youth as well as self-selected postsecondary programs and agencies serving learning disabled people. The **Directory** ($28.00 + $2.00 postage & handling) is available from BOSC, Dept. F, Box 305, Congers, NY 10920. The 1987 Supplement is available for $5.00 plus $2.00 postage and handling, or both volumes may be ordered for $30.00 plus $2.00 postage and handling.

Colleges/Universities That Accept Students with Learning Disabilities (January 1985) lists institutions by state. It is available for $3.00 prepaid from Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities, 4156 Library Road, Pittsburgh, PA 15324. (412) 341-1515.

Directory of College Facilities and Services for the Disabled (Second Edition, 1986) contains information about special facilities and services, physical terrain, auxiliary aids, numbers of students, degrees, and contact persons at over 2,300 colleges and universities. It is available for $95.00 from Oryx Press, 2214 North Central at Encanto, Phoenix, AZ 85004-1483.

A National Directory of Four Year Colleges, Two Year Colleges, and Post High School Training Programs for Young People with Learning Disabilities (Fifth Edition, 1984) describes organizations and institutions by state. Note that noncollegiate programs are included. (A Sixth Edition is scheduled for Winter 1988). It is available for $15.95 + $2.00 postage from Partners in Publishing, Box 50347, Tulsa, OK 74150. (918) 584-5906.

Peterson's Guide to Colleges with Programs for Learning Disabled Students by Charles T. Mangrum II and Stephen S. Strichart is a comprehensive guide to more than 250 four-year colleges and universities offering special services for students with dyslexia and other learning disabilities. The **Guide** devotes an entire page to each college with an easy to use grid that lets the reader assess a program and compare colleges quickly and effectively. Detailed information is provided on the learning disabilities program, services, and aids available at each college. Available in bookstores or from Peterson's Guide, Department 5710, 166 Bunn Drive, P.O. Box 2123, Princeton, NJ 08540-0008, for $13.95 plus $2.00 for shipping and handling.

Questions to Ask

As you sort through brochures you have sent for from the schools in which you might have an interest, you may list those which seem most like you and plan to visit the campus. A productive visit will be one which you have arranged in advance by requesting an appointment to talk with either the Dean of Admissions or the Disabled Student Services Officer, or LD Program Director. Planning such an interview may allow the school time to arrange for you to sleep in a dorm for the night and attend a class or two so that you can get a "feel" for the campus. You may also want to talk to a learning disabled student taking courses there. Once you meet with a campus administrator, you may want to ask some questions--if they have not already been answered in informal talks. Listed below are some questions LD students frequently ask. If you visit several schools, you may want to compare the answers given by each.

- What are the requirements for admission?
- How many LD students are on campus? What year are they in? Are they full-time, part-time, residents, commuters, traditional age, or older? Men? Women? Can you introduce me to one of these students?
- What are the goals and objectives of the program?
- What services are provided? Is there a charge for them? How does one obtain such services?
- What specialized training in learning disabilities do the service providers have?
- Is tutoring and/or counseling provided on a one-to-one basis or in a group? If in a group, how large is it? How frequently and intensively is it available?
- What supervision is provided for noncertified instructors or tutors?
- How is the duration of services determined? Is it usually one semester? One year? Two or longer?
- Who will be my academic advisor and what training does this individual have in learning disabilities?
- Do LD students take regular college courses? For credit?

- Are any courses unavailable to LD students?

- What modifications have faculty or administrators been willing to make for LD students on the campus?

- Are there courses required of LD students? If so, do they carry college credit and does the credit count toward graduation?

- How many LD students have graduated from this college? In what fields? What have they done since graduation?

(This list is adapted from Vogel, S. A., "Issues and Concerns in LD College Programming," in Young Adults with Learning Disabilities: Clinical Studies, Johnson, D. and Blalock, J. (Eds.), Orlando, Florida: Grune & Stratton, 1987.)

Plan Ahead

Once you have selected your school and have been admitted and enrolled, it is time to think of your own individual needs for which you must plan ahead. Perhaps a few days of walking around the campus before others arrive would help in getting settled. Or, if you are planning to request textbooks on tape, be aware that it could take some time (perhaps even up to 6 months!) to get them, thus you need to contact instructors well ahead of time for a list of required books for each course. You may also need help from a study skills teacher on how to use taped materials effectively and what to listen for. Send for the HEATH fact sheet Make the Most of Your Opportunities for more detailed information on planning ahead.

If you plan to ask another student for copies of his/her notes, you might need your instructor to help you find a volunteer, and time to order special noncarbon paper which is available from National Technical Institute for the Deaf bookstore, One Lomb Memorial Drive, Rochester, NY 14632. Or, if you would like to get permission to tape record class lectures, the Director of Special Services might help you with that. This person may have other ideas for you as well.

The important part of these suggestions is that making arrangements is your job, especially in a mainstreamed setting, and you will need plenty of time to have them work out to your advantage.

Social Concerns

Up to now this paper has concentrated on classroom learning. But learning and living outside the classroom is important too. Some of the ideas that learning disabled students have found helpful in managing out-of-classroom activities in mainstreamed college life follow:

- Find out how the campus bookstore works. The school bookstore is a busy, confusing place, especially at the beginning of each semester. Some people go early, before other students arrive on campus, to learn the layout and procedures. Others ask a friend to go with them or request an escort from the Special Services Office. Some students make a list of what they need in order of the bookstore layout. It also helps to find out what is required for payment. Does the bookstore accept checks or only cash? Do you have to bring a student I.D. card or some other identification in order to have checks approved?

- Investigate how to get a parking place, if you have a car. Can you get parking permits ahead of time? Do you need cash or a student I.D. or anything else to get it?

- Keep a list of important phone numbers in your wallet or somewhere always available: the dorm resident or a friend in the dorm who could let you in if you forget your key; campus security who could also help if you are locked out of the dorm or of your car; professors you need to call if, for instance, an assignment is going to be late; the Coordinator of Special Services who can help with academic problems. Some students have said such a list gives them a feeling of confidence--they are prepared to handle any crisis!

- Keep a calendar with enough space to write down appointments. A semester calendar which incorporates the assignments and exam dates from each class syllabus is also a good idea.

- Minimize cost confusion in the cafeteria. Some students sign up for the meal plan, where one pays at the beginning of the semester for a given number of meals and then simply shows a meal plan card instead of paying cash for each individual meal. Others select the fixed price meal, where a student chooses from among limited items and does not have to keep track of the cost.

- Simplify terminology. Sports is an area that can be satisfying. If you have trouble with rules or with terminology, talk about it with the coach or teammates. Together you might develop different clues that work better for you. For example, "pass the ball to Jim" might make more sense to you than "lateral off to the left tight end." The same is true of technical language in other areas, whether chemistry, math, or government. Everyone is meeting new terms in college level courses, and the important thing is to find easier ways of describing those words or concepts that pose difficulties to you.

- Write down directions to parties or meetings or go over them orally, according to your preferred learning style. Write down the time and place of the next meeting.

- Schedule regular exercise or recreational activities. Leisure time activities are an important stress release.

Students with specific learning disabilities--because their special needs are not obvious to others they are in contact with--will be helped as the college communities become sensitized to learning disabilities in a positive way. Schools that educate many students with learning disabilities have done some of the following things:

- In-service programs for faculty and staff to discuss what learning disabilities are and special strategies for teaching students with LD.

- Awareness days for the student body to help others understand about disabilities including LD and learn to accept the individual differences of peers.

STANDARDIZED TESTING

High School Equivalency Testing for Students with Special Needs

Persons with learning disabilities who wish to take the high school equivalency exam can obtain special accommodations and editions of the exam through the GED (General Educational Development) Testing Service. The Chief Examiner must be provided with professional verification of the disability. Special editions include braille, large print, and audio cassettes. Special accommodations include additional time, quiet surroundings, low-glare lighting, etc. The fact that the test was taken under special conditions generally will not be included on the student's record. For more complete information, contact the State Department of Education in your state.

College Testing Services for Students with Special Needs

Persons with learning disabilities may obtain, if necessary, special accommodations and/or editions of either of the two most commonly used admissions/placement tests--the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) provided by the Admissions Testing Program of the College Board, and the American College Testing (ACT) Assessment. Extended time, cassettes, readers, large type, flexible test dates, separate test rooms, individualized supervision or instructors, and marking assistance are among the special arrangements permitted. These requests should be made well in advance of the exam date. The details of what is involved in special testing varies between the two testing services. Of particular importance is whether or not the fact that the test is taken under nonstandard conditions is noted on the student's records. The SAT notes any test taken under nonstandard conditions. The ACT makes no reference to special testing unless extended time was used. Students, parents, and counselors may want to talk this over and decide whether or not the disability warrants special testing. For some students it may be worth the investment to take the test both ways. For complete details about special testing and other tests provided by the two testing services, contact:

ATP Services for Handicapped Students
CN6400
Princeton, New Jersey 08541-6400
(609) 734-5350

The ACT Assessment-"Special Testing Guide" Test Administration
P.O. Box 168
Iowa City, Iowa 52243
(319) 337-1332

RECORDED TEXTS

Recording for the Blind (RFB) provides taped educational books for disabled students who qualify. Disability must be certified by a specialist as defined by RFB. If applicant is accepted, RFB materials and services are provided free. For additional information and application form, contact Recording for the Blind, Inc., 20 Roszel Road, Princeton, NJ 08542, (609) 452-0606.

"Talking Books" are available for learning disabled persons from the Library of Congress, National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped. Medical or psychological certification stating that the applicant cannot read due to an organic dysfunction or specific learning disability is necessary. For application, contact Library of Congress, National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped (NLS), 1291 Taylor Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20452, (202) 287-5100 or your local Talking Book Center. A directory of volunteer groups who produce reading materials in tape-recorded, large-print, or braille form is available at no cost from the NLS.

SELECTED ORGANIZATIONS AND SELF-HELP GROUPS

Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities (ACLD), 4156 Library Road, Pittsburgh, PA 15234. (412) 341-1515, Jean Peterson, Executive Director. Membership organization of professionals and parents devoted to advancing the education and well-being of children and adults with learning disabilities. Publication list includes numerous documents devoted to defining and finding solutions for the broad spectrum of learning problems. ACLD Newsbriefs is published 6 times per year. The international conference held annually has featured a growing number of sessions related to postsecondary education of LD adults. The conference also features a meeting of the ACLD Youth and Adult Section. Contact the above address for future conference sites.

Association of Learning Disabled Adults, P.O. Box 9722, Friendship Station, Washington, DC 20016. Serves as a model self-help group and provides technical assistance to those who wish to organize self-help groups.

Independent Living Research Utilization Project (ILRU), P.O. Box 20095, Houston, TX 77225, (713) 797-0200. Office gives technical assistance to groups interested in starting an independent living center, and also publishes a state-by-state **Directory of Independent Living Programs** available for $8.50. 306 programs listed.

Marin Puzzle People, Inc., 1368 Lincoln Avenue, Suite 105, San Rafael, CA 94901, (415) 453-4006. Organization of learning disabled adults in the San Francisco Bay area, offering social functions, minicourses, information, and referral services. Its monthly newsletter is available to people within and outside California, costing $12 a year (sample copy free). A booklet entitled **Socialization of Learning Disabled Adults--Why and How to Organize a Group** describes setting up local clubs and costs $3.00.

National Network of Learning Disabled Adults, 808 N. 82 Street, Suite F2, Scottsdale, AZ 85257, (602) 941-5112, Bill Butler, Newsletter Editor. An organization run by and for people who are learning disabled. Encourages and provides technical assistance in the development of self-support groups for LD adults. A free newsletter and list of self-help groups is available.

Orton Dyslexia Society, 724 York Road, Towson, MD 21204, (301) 296-0232. An international scientific and educational association concerned specifically with the widespread problem of specific language disability of developmental dyslexia. Parents as well as professionals are members. There are chapters in many states, each of which holds at least one public meeting or workshop per year. Publications of the Society include books, packets, and reprints helpful in understanding dyslexia.

SELECTED RESOURCES

Assisting College Students with Learning Disabilities: A Tutor's Manual, by Pamula Adelman and Debbie Olufs, is designed for use by service providers and tutors working with learning disabled students. The Manual gives program development guidelines, and case studies covering determining problem areas, helping students study effectively, exam strategies, time management, and spelling strategies. The Manual is available for $15.00 (AHSSPPE members) or $25.00 (nonmembers) from the Association on Handicapped Student Service Programs in Postsecondary Education (AHSSPPE), P.O. Box 21192, Columbus, OH 43221.

Assisting the Learning Disabled: A Program Development and Service Delivery Guide for University Service Providers, Diagnosticians, Tutors, Counselors, and Learning Disabled Students, developed by Dr. Anna Gajar (1986), is now available at cost from the Pennsylvania State University. The Guide includes four chapters, each containing many components relating to major objectives of any model program serving mainstreamed university students who are disabled. The four chapters address: the development of a comprehensive diagnostic and academic support service program, steps involved in conducting awareness and informational activities, development of materials for dissemination, and lastly, identifying and conducting research in selected academic areas. For a copy of this Guide, mail a check or money order for $11.00 payable to The Pennsylvania State University to the following address: The Pennsylvania State University, c/o.Dr. Anna Gajar, 226B Moore Building, University Park, PA 16802. Please allow 3-4 weeks for delivery.

The College Student with a Learning Disability: Handbook for College LD Students, Admissions Officers, Faculty, and Administrators, by Susan A. Vogel, 1985, second edition, is a useful, clearly written booklet which covers significant topics including the definition of learning disability, characteristics of LD adults, characteristics of a model comprehensive college LD program, ways that administrators and faculty can help, and ways LD students can help themselves. Includes an updated reference section. The booklet may be ordered by prepaying $3.50 to ACLD, 4156 Library Road, Pittsburgh, PA 15234.

College Students with Learning Disabilities: A Student's Perspective . . . by Carol Wren and Laura Segal, is an informative, readable, and highly moving booklet describing the experience of one learning disabled college student. Both student and service provider descriptions of the journey from pre-diagnosis to acceptance of the disability are presented. Especially useful are the sections on developing a learning profile and understanding the diagnosis. Single copies are available by prepaying $1.00 to Project Learning Strategies, DePaul University, 2323 Seminary, Chicago, IL 60614.

The FCLD Learning Disabilities Resources Guides: A State by State Directory of Special Programs, Schools, and Services provides expanded information about schools, special programs, and services, plus new methods of listing and highlighting resources allows quick identification of references. A chapter on options beyond high school and resource and reading lists supplements the 300 pages of program information. Available for $10.00 from the Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities (FCLD), Box 2929, Grand Central Station, New York, NY 10163.

HELDS Project Series on Teaching Learning Disabled College Students is a set of 17 booklets written by University faculty containing techniques for teaching specific subject areas. Each booklet includes sections about the effect of the disability on learning, structuring the course and class hour, and teaching techniques. English, grammar, history, chemistry, logic, electricity, foreign language, behavioral and social sciences, and courtship and marriage are among the areas covered. Sets of the HELDS booklets have been distributed nationwide, but are still available for $20.00 per set from Educational Opportunities Program, Central Washington University, Ellensburg, WA 98926. (509) 963-2131.

The LD College Writers Project is a rich source of information on Writing, Learning Disabilities, and Computers, and offers publications such as **Composition, Word Processing and Learning Disabled College Writers, Microcomputers and the Learning Disabled Writer, A Guide to Selecting Word Processing Software for Learning Disabled College Writers**, and other reprints of their findings. To order (at cost) contact the LD College Writers Project, University of Minnesota-General College, 106 Nicholson Hall, 216 Pillsbury Drive, S.E., Minneapolis, MN 55455. (612) 625-8384. Project materials are also available through the ERIC system.

Rehabilitating the Learning Disabled Adult and Independent Living and Learning Disabilities, two articles reprinted from American Rehabilitation, are available free from Dale Brown, President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Room 600, 1111 - 20th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036. Include mailing label with your address if possible.

Section 504, Help for the Learning Disabled College Student by Joan Sedita is a discussion of Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1973 and its implications for college learning disabled students. Also discussed are admissions procedures, academic adjustments, auxiliary aids, etc. Available for $1.00 each from: Landmark School, Prides Crossing, MA 01965-0417. Inquire for bulk rates.

Specific Learning Disabilities: A Resource Manual Learning for Vocational Rehabilitation presents material for rehabilitation counselors in advising clients with learning disabilities. The descriptions of the disability, of terminology, and of diagnostic tests, as well as practical tips on finding support services and appropriate job training will be of interest to young people, their parents, teachers, and counselors as well. Available for $12.50 from Vocational Rehabilitation Center, c/o SLD Manual, 1325 Forbes Avenue, Pittsburgh, PA 15219.

Strengths and Weaknesses: College Students with Learning Disabilities is a 26-minute color film that focuses on four learning disabled students and four professionals working with them on adapting learning styles for academic success. The film's message is excellent for student, professional, and general audiences. Available for purchase as film or video cassette ($420 or $340), rental ($50.00/week). Learning Disabilities--First Hand provides viewers with a clear understanding of the social, emotional, and academic obstacles faced by persons with learning disabilities. 15 1/2 min. Available as a film or video cassette ($285 or $235), rental ($50.00/week). Both films are available from Lawren Productions, 930 Pitner Ave., Evanston, IL 60202. (800) 323-9084.

Support Services for LD Students in Postsecondary Education: A Compendium of Reading collects 23 of "Best of AHSSPPE" Proceedings in the area of LD on campus. This book spans the student life cycle from transition from high school direct services, to classroom accommodations, psychosocial issues, and postgraduate issues in employment. The Compendium is available for $11.50 (AHSSPPE members) or $22.00 (nonmembers) from the Association on Handicapped Student Service Programs in Postsecondary Education (AHSSPPE), P.O. Box 21192, Columbus, OH 43221.

Their World is a magazine published once a year by the Foundation for Children with Learning Disabilities. The glossy pages of this beautifully done, upbeat, and sensitive publication contain photographs, drawings, and articles written by parents, children, and professionals about their experiences with learning disabilities. Available for $4.00 from FCLD, Box 2929, Grand Central Station, New York, NY 10163.

Unlocking Potential: College and Other Choices for Learning Disabled People: A Step-by-Step Guide by Barbara Scheiber and Jeanne Talpers. Unlocking Potential, first published as Campus Access for Learning Disabled Students by Closer Look (1985) has been reissued by Adler & Adler under the new title. This handbook focuses on the selection of appropriate college, technical school, or other postsecondary program; the admissions process; coursework accommodations; supportive services; the use of new technology; and tips on personal adjustment. The handbook, based on interviews with LD students, LD adults, parents, counselors, admissions directors, instructors, and support services providers, includes tested and proven cost-effective approaches to the subject. Unlocking Potential, which contains virtually all of the information from Campus Access, is available for $12.95 in local bookstores, or can be ordered. For additional ordering information, contact Adler & Adler, 4550 Montgomery Avenue, Bethesda, MD 20814. (800) 638-3030 or in MD call collect (301) 824-7300.

What Do You Do After High School?: The Nationwide Guide to Residential, Vocational, Social and Collegiate Programs Serving the Adolescent, Young Adult, and Adult with Learning Disabilities. Regina Skyer & Gil Skyer (1986-87). This Guide gives a comprehensive national overview of programs for LD individuals. The authors cover six major areas: vocational programs, formal and informal; college programs; diagnostic evaluation; tutoring, remediation and counseling; independent living and residential services; recreation and summer opportunities; organizations and networks. Each area is discussed and listed with brief annotations. The Skyers have listed and attempted to cross-reference every program in the country that might serve persons who are learning disabled; thus far a number of entries in this 111-page Guide include a statement that the program is not specifically for learning disabled persons, but should be considered. However, this Guide is invaluable as a tool for a counselor for pulling together a wealth of national information. The Guide is available for $29.95 from Skyer Consultation Center, Inc., P.O. Box 121, Rockaway Park, NY 11694. (718) 634-7206.

From: Higher Education and Adult Training for people with Handicaps

CREATIVE SOLUTIONS

Consultation

- Communicating effectively with employees
- Understanding and working with employees with basic skills problems
- Developing a training style that works
- Developing job modifications for workers with disabilities
- Leadership styles

Training

- On-site training for supervisors, first-line employees, and contractors
- Topics:
  - Understanding employer concerns in hiring recent graduates: issues for schools
  - Successful employment strategies with the emerging work force of the 1990s: women, persons with disabilities, people from diverse cultural backgrounds
  - Successful transition planning from school to work for students with disabilities

Assessment

- Assessing employees' basic skills
- Literacy audits in the workplace
- Career interest inventories/career planning

DIANE SZYMANSKI
Consultation-Training-Assessment

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1. Visual Processing

This is the process of taking information into the system through the eyes, and then using this information to perform other tasks. Individuals who have difficulty with visual processing would not do well when interpreting written materials (manuals, order processing in a warehouse or restaurant, recording written information in receptionist or secretarial positions). These individuals have probably had much difficulty with school, since a great deal of academic information is transmitted visually. They will benefit from taping materials, using hands-on methods or (maybe!) watching others perform the task. They may require assistance when learning new tasks, completing applications, taking tests, and so forth.

2. Auditory Processing

This involves processing information taken in through the ears. Individuals with problems in this area have difficulty listening to information and taking notes, and may have difficulty identifying important information from video tapes, understanding a list of information or tasks given to them verbally, or fully understanding what another individual is saying. They may obtain an idea that is completely different from what a speaker is actually saying. At times, these individuals will only hear parts of what someone says, and drift in and out of conversations. They are usually very susceptible to being distracted by other noises in a work or study area. Fans, copy machines, computer printers, phones, or people walking by can all be distractions. Compensations include using a quiet work or study place, taping information (classes, meetings), constantly checking with persons in conversation to ensure understanding and cooperation, and receiving assistance for notetaking required by training programs. These individuals would benefit from job coaching in employment settings and individual support/teaching during training programs.

3. Fine Motor Processing

Persons who have this difficulty become frustrated with tasks involving small movements or requirements to work very quickly. Typing, computer entry, working with small parts, working with papers (filing), and assembly line work would not be good choices for this individual. Once again, the ability to make quick decisions and adjust the body for fine movements is not there. This may or may not have been documented during high school, because people often make allowances for individuals being "clumsy" during adolescence. Typing skills may be developed, but the speed may not be fast enough for employment. A good compensation for individuals interested in clerical-type positions would be to base pay on work completed instead of providing an hourly wage.

4. Vocal Expression

These individuals require additional time to process questions or information before they can develop and present a response. In many cases, especially in school, they may have been considered slow, shy, or dumb. The verbal delivery necessary when responding to others is difficult for them. Processing deficits become evident as the individual develops what he/she wants to say and tries to transfer this information to spoken words. Problems will be painfully evident during interviews, phone conversations, social conversations, and in their attempts to ask questions. During interviews, employers will usually look unfavorably upon these delays. Individuals with vocal expression problems often have difficulty developing social acquaintances and participating in conversations, discussions, or oral exams. Requesting assistance or asking questions is difficult for them. These individuals would have great difficulty in receptionist positions, sales positions, or some service technician positions, depending on the amount of public contact.

5. Space Orientation

In many cases, someone with this characteristic functions as if two individuals were in a single body. A great deal of effort is needed to function in the most basic ways. Information taken in through any way (eyes, ears, tactile) may enter the brain from two sides independently. Processing becomes very difficult! Walking, sitting, climbing stairs, and other physical activities are very taxing because the individual exerts a great deal of energy concentrating and planning to carry out activities. The person may complain of extreme exhaustion and fatigue. Medical exams may or may not identify what is occurring. These exams may be returned saying "good muscle strength, coordination, flexibility" and so forth. It will not be obvious that these individuals work extremely hard in order to produce results. It may be feasible for such persons to work only short periods of time. These persons also have no concept of spatial relations such as "in back of," "in front of," "behind," "before," "after," "next to," and so forth. Employment situations involving fast movements (restaurants), delivery, warehouse work (forklift driving, materials handling), and finding one's way in large buildings (e.g., libraries) would be very difficult and anxiety producing. These individuals also become easily disoriented, even by turning around rapidly in the same room, and may be unable to reorient themselves with the use of landmarks. Driving can be very difficult.

6. Time Management

Individuals with this characteristic are usually easy to identify because they often miss meetings, interviews, and other scheduled events. They may have developed compensations using clocks or calendars, but it is not unusual for them to forget to look at the clock or calendar, or misread it. They tend to have difficulty arranging their day, and may plan a very hectic schedule, not realizing the amount of time required for each task. On the job, they may have difficulty changing schedules, going on breaks, and returning from breaks. If they are engaged in an activity that they really enjoy, they may continue working after their shift is completed. Jobs requiring the use of a time clock, or periodic shift changes would not coincide with this individual's frame of reference. This person can also be very frustrating for employers, yet may not understand what he or she has done wrong. Other difficult situations include keeping appointments (so sales jobs may not be feasible), completing tasks with specific time requirements (such as time clocks), or performing certain tasks that must be completed on time (changing machinery settings or reading gauges at the same time every day).

7. Balance

These individuals appear awkward, and experience difficulty when judging distances. They would not be candidates for jobs that require climbing or working with heights. Sedentary jobs are preferable. It may be difficult for these individuals to learn to drive, but not impossible.

8. Coordination

This is a mixture of problems between balance and spatial perception. Once again, these people may function as if two persons were in one body. The physical fatigue this causes may be evident. They generally have less difficulty processing information, but lack control over body movements. They would not be good candidates for busy work areas or around machinery. Teaching these people to "slow themselves down" can be helpful. In contrast to the person with space orientation problems who has difficulty due to thinking about what they are doing, these individuals may not think enough, and tend to be unaware of what's around them.

9. Social Dysfunctions

Individuals experiencing this difficulty have little awareness of their impact on others. They have little knowledge or understanding of concepts such as "personal space," and may stand very close to people, or actually touch people constantly on the shoulder, arm, or back. They may have difficulty interacting with others since they do not catch innuendos or "unwritten rules." They may have difficulty understanding or telling jokes, participating in conversations, or cooperating on projects at work or in school. They may have difficulty understanding the roles of supervisor, employee, and coworker, and make individuals around them uncomfortable (e.g., asking a supervisor to go out on a date, interrupting conversations or joining in at inappropriate times). They also tend to have problems understanding role shifts. (You can play softball with the supervisor on Saturday, and then he or she may discipline you for poor work on Monday.) Job coaching can be extremely beneficial for these individuals by helping them to understand social situations, helping coworkers learn to assist by explaining context as well as key facts, and by developing support systems on the work site.

10. Setting Priorities

These individuals may appear on the surface to be organized. For example, they may use daily and weekly lists to schedule their activities, develop agendas if they are chairing meetings, or prepare outlines if they are writing a paper. However, the contents of these lists, agendas, and outlines vary wildly in importance, even if each item relates in some way to the issues at hand. In addition, these individuals tend to treat all items on the list with equal--and grave--importance, thus dissipating a great deal of time and energy on topics that others would consider trivial, or would deal with summarily in order to focus on key elements.

Seemingly extraneous issues, such as deciding where to go for a group lunch (during a formal meeting, for instance) can suddenly absorb as much time and energy as determining the goals and policy of the organization. Another example might be the individual who, when assigned to develop a publicity brochure, spends 60 minutes on the wording of a single sentence, yet devotes only a few minutes to the logistics of producing and disseminating the finished product on a schedule that will allow the brochure to reach its intended audience in time for them to act on its content. Getting closure on an issue--making final decisions--is often very difficult for these individuals. A simple way to determine if a client has this difficulty is to help the person generate a list of five to eight actions that will be required as part of the rehabilitation process (ensuring that some items are definitely less critical than others), ask the individual to rank them in terms of importance, and then ask him or her to explain why they ranked them in that particular order.

TEACHING HINTS ON LEARNING STYLES

Auditory Learners: (Learn best by listening/hearing)

Trouble Spots:

The auditory learner may have:

- Poor handwriting
- Inattentiveness to visual tasks (including copying from the board)
- Poor comprehension on material read, but not discussed in class
- Confusion with math symbols
- Problems with matching exercises, especially if they are not clearly printed
- Trouble with material requiring a separate answer sheet

Teaching Tips:

- Give verbal as well as written instruction
- Tape important information; student or teacher can tape
- Use commercially prepared tapes to supplement lectures or texts
- Tape drills and exercises for additional practice
- Give students oral rather than written tests
- Have students drill aloud to themselves or other students; allow students to quiz each other in groups
- Allow students ample time to copy visual information
- Give the student occasional tutorial duties assisting the student who has auditory difficulties
- Speak slowly and clearly
- Ask students to repeat directions
- Repeat directions
- Allow more time for students to respond to questions
- Use cues when outlining materials verbally
- Pictures, charts, or lists can be used if content is explained verbally
- Use role-playing
- Let student give demonstrations and instruction to class on how to do things

Visual Learners: (Learn best by seeing)

Trouble Spots:

The visual leaners may have:

- Problems with, and even ignore, verbal directions
- Poor speech; poor vocabulary
- Trouble discriminating words that sound alike
- Problems with class instruction; students may look around the classroom to see what others are doing
- Trouble remembering information given orally
- Problems looking up words in a dictionary without knowing the spelling of the word
- A preference for "visual" parts of classroom learning

Teaching Tips:

- Correct spelling by rewriting words correctly
- Encourage student to write notes in pencil to allow for erasing of mistakes and correcting of errors
- For math exercises, encourage student to illustrate problems on paper
- Use visuals! Filmstrips, slides, pictures, drawings, transparencies
- Write assignments on the board or on an assignment sheet
- Prepare outlines for material to be covered orally
- Find ways to turn spoken word into pictures
- Students should use wide lines for notetaking
- Encourage students to underline key points

Tactile-Kinesthetic Learners: (Learn best by doing; will have success with tasks that are actually experienced)

Trouble Spots:

The tactile-kinesthetic learner may have:

- Trouble "visualizing" unseen objects or concepts
- Problems comprehending auditory instructions or directions without action
- Problems understanding abstract concepts without "experiencing" them

Teaching Tips:

- Provide hands-on activities in classroom or laboratory
- Use accessible equipment like tape recorders, calculators, typewriters, and audiovisual equipment
- Use available tools
- Provide field trips
- Provide work experience or simulated work experience
- When possible, arrange a learning situation that involves activity
- Bring items of discussion to class and let students feel or touch them
- When possible, let students make their own models or replicas

EFFECTS OF LEARNING DISABILITIES ON COLLEGE STUDENTS

Following are characteristic problems of college students with learning disabilities. Naturally, no student will have all of these problems.

Study Skills
Inability to change from one task to another
No system for organizing notes and other materials
Difficulty scheduling time to complete short- and long-term assignments
Difficulty completing tests and in-class assignments without additional time
Difficulty following directions, particularly written directions

Interpersonal Skills
Impulsivity
Difficulty delaying resolution to a problem
Disorientation in time--misses class and appointments
Poor self-esteem

Reading
Difficulty reading new words, particularly when sound/symbol relationships are inconsistent
Slow reading rate--takes longer to read a test and other in-class assignments
Poor comprehension and retention of material read
Difficulty interpreting charts, graphs, scientific symbols
Difficulty with complex syntax on objective tests

Writing
Problems in organization and sequencing of ideas
Poor sentence structure
Incorrect grammar
Frequent and inconsistent spelling errors
Difficulty taking notes
Poor letter formation, capitalization
Inadequate strategies for monitoring written work

Oral Language
Difficulty concentrating in lectures, especially 2- to 3-hour lectures
Poor vocabulary, difficulty with word retrieval
Problems with grammar

Math
Difficulty with basic math operations
Difficulty with aligning problems, number reversals, confusion of symbols
Poor strategies for monitoring errors
Difficulty with reasoning
Difficulty reading and comprehending word problems
Difficulty with concepts of time and money

From: Adelman & Olufs/AHSSPPE, 1990

COURSE COMPETENCIES

Describe the characteristics of the handicapped and design the learning environment for the handicapped.

- Describe various types of handicaps students might possess that would interfere with the learning process.
- Identify barriers to success in the learning environment.
- Describe a (the) teaching strategy(ies) that will improve the success of a handicapped student.
- Modify or adapt curriculum to meet the needs of the handicapped.
- Describe support services available to provide assistance in the least restrictive learning environment.
- Describe potential problems handicapped graduates might face in the labor market.

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

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HIP/VIP

Maggie Holt
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Patricia Polkinghorne
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Dani Prange
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OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. Select a visually impaired or hearing impaired class to visit with the help of the resource personnel listed above. Find out the following information from the resource personnel:

    a. Organization of the program

    b. Modes/methods of instructional delivery

    c. Student population served

    d. The social, cultural, and political context of the program's operation

2. Arrange with the instructor of the class to interview one or two students.

3. Develop a list of questions for your interview based on the competencies and objectives of the course.

4. Submit the questions to the course facilitator prior to your interview with the students.

5. Share your findings of the interview and visit with the resource personnel (number 1) and the student interview (number 2), at the second progress/sharing meeting.

6. Read the following sections from the course manual:

    B-1 to B-38
    B-39 to B-98
    B-125 to B-130

7. View the video "Our Soundless World," NTC library. Be prepared to share your thoughts with the facilitator at the progress reporting/sharing meeting.

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PROFILE OF A DEAF ADULT

1. Deafness is the INVISIBLE HANDICAP, not of or by itself, but by what the world makes it to be. You cannot see deafness in a child or in an adult; yet awareness of deafness in an adult often causes him/her to be cast as "different."

2. It has been said also that: "The deaf are the most misunderstood among men."

3. The deaf are, in reality, as different individually as any other group of people, so it is very difficult to draw up a picture of a typical deaf adult.

    a. A deaf adult may or may not be able to speak.

    b. If the deaf adult can speak, his/her speech may or may not be understandable, or it may be only partially intelligible. Sometimes a deaf adult's articulation may be understood only by his/her immediate family, or by someone who has worked with deaf children for many years.

    c. The deaf adult may or may not use Sign Language. There are many deaf individuals who have never had exposure to Sign Language. They may have been in schools which refuse to allow Sign Language to be used, or they may never have had any formal education and may, therefore, be able to communicate only in very limited gestures or "home signs."

    d. The deaf adult may or may not be able to lipread, but even an expert lipreader can perceive only 30 - 40% of the sounds of spoken English by looking at the lips of a speaker. Lipreading, at best, has often been termed nothing more than "educated guesswork," and I know this is true from personal day-to-day experience.

    e. The deaf adult may or may not belong to a "community of deaf persons like himself"; he/she may or may not belong to a club for or an association of the deaf.

    f. The deaf adult may or may not have completed formal schooling, or he may have been so educationally deprived that he is functionally illiterate.

    g. The deaf adult may or may not have had any postsecondary education, including college. (Only a very small percentage do go to college, as postsecondary and continuing education programs for the deaf are just now becoming more widespread.)

    h. The deaf adult may or may not have any concept of self-worth or self-image, depending upon his/her background and upbringing.

    i. The deaf adult may or may not be married to another deaf person.

j. In most other respects, the deaf adult is like most any other adult--holding a job . . . having a family . . . driving a car . . . owning a home--except that in the workaday world the deaf adult remains a vulnerable human being, subjected to discrimination of the subtlest sorts--discrimination that often is unintended--merely because the deaf person cannot function like a hearing person in day-to-day communication, and because of this, he/she remains a most misunderstood person.

By: William J. Madsen, Director
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THE MEANING OF DEAFNESS

Frederick C. Schreiber
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Pages 31-35

The first thought I had on being asked to discuss the "meaning of deafness" was of a poem called "Happiness." However, before you jump to the conclusion that I relate deafness with happiness, I would like to quote a few lines from that poem:

Happiness is like a crystal
Fair, exquisite and clear--
Broke in a million pieces,
Scattered far and near...

Now and then along life's pathway
Some shining fragments fall,
But there are so many pieces
No one ever finds them all.

This applies to deafness in the sense that there are so many meanings to deafness that no one ever has them all. Deafness means one thing to a small child; something else to his parents; teachers have a different view; rehabilitation people may not see this the same as their clients; and the clients themselves may not see this the way I shall attempt to define it now.

When one thinks of deafness, one is thinking of not one but five handicaps--the least of which is the inability to hear. As a matter of fact, were the inability to hear the only handicapping condition of deafness, I am sure many people would regard deafness as a blessing, particularly in view of the cacaphony of today. Such, however, is not the case. Each of these five handicaps becomes, to me, a meaning of deafness.

The major handicapping aspect of deafness lies in the acquisition of language. Being unable to hear, one is forced to rely on artificial means for acquiring a way to express one's thoughts. This is a slow and painful process which would be difficult enough under the most favorable condition, but which becomes just short of intolerable under conditions which exist today. What is even worse and often little considered is what this does to people with normal intelligence who find themselves unable to produce the language that will adequately express what they want to say.

People who take language for granted generally regard the acquisition of language by the deaf as a problem similar to that of a person with normal hearing learning a foreign language and fail to appreciate the true magnitude of the problem. Trying to teach a child words when the child has no frame of reference to help is a tremendous, if not impossible, task. Words like ball, fish, top, shoe may be easy to lipread, but teaching a child to recognize these words on the lips is not a way of helping him to acquire language skills.

If the lack of language is the first meaning of deafness, then the second must be the problem of communication. The most common failing we find among people who have language is the assumption that language and communication are the same. This is often compounded by the tendency of many people to also equate either or both with intelligence as well.

And it must be pointed out that speech cannot be equated with either communication or language. While all three are closely related, they are separate entities. One can have language but not speech and be unable to communicate. One can have speech but no language and be able to communicate without either. And, of course, one can have both language and speech and fail to communicate effectively.

One who has given serious thought to the problem tends to assume that if one has language one can automatically communicate, yet you have only to look at the so-called "generation gap" to realize that this is far from the case.

Our colleges, our parents, and perhaps even society as a whole are suffering from a severe communication problem despite the fact that, generally speaking, the people of the world today have a higher degree of language sophistication than ever before. In this sense, I am trying to say that we often fail to get through to each other, with or without language. For example, the deaf do not know what is expected of them, and the hearing do not know what the deaf want.

The third handicapping aspect of deafness relates to misconceptions and misinformation which tend to obscure the disabling effects of hearing loss in the eyes of the general public and, when combined with the first two factors I have mentioned, compounds the already difficult situation. What is even worse, much of this information is deliberately spread. It may not be spread with the intention of complicating the lives of people who are deaf, but the people who are responsible for this misinformation completely disregard or do not even consider the possible effect of this misinformation on the lives of the deaf. You have all seen, I am sure, advertisements proclaiming in bold type, "Don't Be Deaf!" or "Nerve Deafness Can Be Cured!" and perhaps more recently the State Farm advertisement pointing out that "In 37 states you can renew your driver's license by mail--even if you are blind or deaf." People who have no connection with the deaf usually just skim over these ads, taking with them the vague impression that there is no real problem since deafness is curable or remediable.

People reading the State Farm ad (which was revised to remove the word "deaf") or articles in medical columns in the newspapers are often given the impression that there is something hazardous about deafness which makes the deaf unqualified not only to drive cars but also to operate machinery of any kind.

The result of all this is an interesting resistance on the part of employers to hire deaf people in factories and shops where they would be required to operate machines, and a severe economic burden with respect to auto insurance.

In every case where we have been aware of such occurrences and have called this misinformation to the attention of the writers or advertisers, retractions have been printed or offending words removed, but not all the people who saw the original article read the retraction. Nor will all the people who saw the first version of the State Farm ad bother to read the new version, since, except for elimination of the word "deaf," it is substantially the same as the original.

The loose use of the word "hearing," and the general impression foisted on the public by this, create additional problems in a sort of chain reaction which requires Herculean efforts to halt. For example, the federal government sponsors the President's Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped. It is actively engaged in promoting employment opportunities for handicapped people. Yet many of its job descriptions include the requirement that applicants can hear, whether or not this requirement is truly relevant to the position in question. Civil Service Commission examinations are heavily verbal, whether or not the position requires verbal skills. This creates a serious disadvantage for a deaf applicant. More importantly, no one seems to consider the effect of this on private industry. Yet how can one expect the private sector of business to be willing to hire people who apparently are not good enough for the government?

The private businessman is no "do-gooder." He is in business to make money and it is only when he is convinced that a handicapped worker can make money for him that he will consider hiring one. Thus, if the government (which, as every taxpayer knows, is in business to spend money rather than make it) indicates that hearing is essential to employment, then certainly business can be expected to feel the same way.

Also, consider that we have thousands of deaf printers in this country. How are they affected when the government office limits the number of deaf employees who can work on one shift to 25 men on the grounds that more would interfere with "flexibility"?

In all fairness, I must say there are efforts to remedy these inequities within federal employment policies, but the situation is still critical.

The fourth meaning and handicap of deafness is invisibility. This is a subtle thing which, were it not for the first three conditions, might have been beneficial since people generally do not like to be constantly reminded that a segment of our population is so much less fortunate than they are. However, since there is no outward indication of deafness, one is generally unaware that the condition exists. I was strongly reminded of this a few years ago when I flew to Atlanta to attend a banquet of the Georgia Association of the Deaf. I did not know the person who was to meet me, and no one was at the gate when my plane landed about 1 1/2 hours late. At first I thought perhaps I would find him in the baggage room, but when there still was no one whom I either recognized or who appeared to be looking for a missing speaker, I was reduced to signing to myself. I must have looked ridiculous, I know, but it was the only way I knew of indicating I was deaf.

This anonymity touches on many aspects of daily living. My children's friends are shy of meeting me; they do not know what to expect. People to whom we fail to respond when spoken to do not automatically think "perhaps he did not hear me," but, rather, "he's rude."

Often people fail to recognize the blank look that sometimes appears on my face when I am asked something I do not understand. They assume silence means consent, so that I frequently end up with a Coke when I really wanted coffee.

More importantly, due to this invisibility and the failure of most people to understand or appreciate our language, communication, and speech needs, the problems are perpetuated and misinformation and misconcepts are permitted to spread.

The fifth meaning of deafness and the least crippling problem is the inability to hear. Little need be said about this because most people are able to visualize what that entails. Many experience the sensation of hearing loss when the sound goes off on their TV sets or when they are in an area where the noise is so great as to prevent hearing speech.

It seems to be a horrible existence to have to live without sound day in and day out for as long as you live. But compared to the other problems related to hearing loss, it is comparatively simple to do so and frequently there are benefits attached. The deaf person can concentrate better--he is not easily distracted by noise; he works better because he must give his job his undivided attention; he is more alert because he knows he cannot depend on his ears for anything, and is sensitive to vibration which often indicates something is happening long before the trouble is audible.

Having experienced the decibel level that can be achieved by teenage children playing rock music, an incessantly ringing telephone, or a blaring TV set, I am sure there are times when one will agree we never had it so good. At least I am not awakened by the commercials when I fall asleep in front of my TV set, nor does the traffic right outside my window disturb me as I write this. I did not have to protest against "noise pollution on earth."

The meanings of deafness that I mentioned are but a few of the myriad pieces that constitute the condition we call deafness. Toward finding positive solutions for the meanings of deafness I would say that to start as I did by quoting a poem on "happiness" would not be as farfetched as it seems. Happiness is having people understand the meaning of deafness.

"COULD WE GET ALONG WITHOUT SPEECH?"

All About Language, Mario Pei, 1954

Before going further, we should perhaps cast a glance at all those systems of communication in which speech plays no part. First and foremost among them, of course, is writing. But writing, in modern society, has become such an important widespread means of getting your ideas across to others that we can reserve an entire chapter for it.

It was not always so, however. Time was, and not too long ago, when most people did not know how to read and write. Curious reminders of that not very distant past are the barber-shop poles and the cigar-store Indians. They served to notify people who could not read of what goods and services they could get in those shops.

If we go back far enough, there was a time when writing had not yet been invented. Yet people managed to get messages through to one another without speech even then. Today, they still manage to convey messages without either speech or writing.

Consider, for instance, your system of traffic lights. At any given street intersection there is no policeman, no written sign. But the light turns red, and the motorists stop. Then it turns green, and they start moving once more. That light is just as full of meaning as though the words "Stop" and "Go" were spoken or written.

Signals recognized by the eye can take many forms. There are signal fires and smoke signals (the latter were much used by the Plains Indians). There are signal flags, used especially at sea to convey all sorts of complicated messages. There is the heliograph, that device used by the U.S. Navy to catch and reflect the sun's rays into the eyes of men miles away and spell out a message to them.

Then there are thousands of ear-signals. The whistle of a policeman or referee, the siren of an ambulance or fire engine, the bell at your door or in the classroom, all convey messages as clear as though they were spoken. Usually it is a single, simple message that is conveyed to the listener. But not always. The natives of the Congo, in Africa, have a tom-tom jungle "telephone" by means of which they are able to send long and complicated messages. One variety of this tom-tom consists of a section of hardwood log about five feet long and two feet in diameter, hollowed out, but with the ends filled in, with a slit in the top and the walls so graduated that striking the side of the slot away from the operator gives a low tone and the near side a high tone. It is played with two sticks about a foot long, to the ends of which are fastened latex balls. The succession of high and low tones spells out messages, which in some cases seem to imitate the pitch of the voice in native words, in others are simply based on a previous understanding, like our own Morse Code SOS, which is universally accepted as indicating distress.

The Morse Code, based on dots and dashes, or long and short buzzes when it comes over telegraph wires, spells out letters of the alphabet which in turn are combined into words and sentences. This brings it close to writing. On the other hand, long and short toots from a locomotive stand not for letters, but for complete messages. Three short toots and one long blast tell the flagman to protect the front of the train; if reversed, to proceed to the rear; three shorts mean "I'm going to back up"; two longs mean "I'm releasing the brakes; let's go!"

Other examples of sound language not based on speech are the Army bugle calls, over forty in number, each one of which has a different meaning which the soldiers must learn, and the whistling language of the Canary Islands, used by the natives to convey messages across the deep gorges where the sound of the voice does not carry. Nor should we forget our conventional way of indicating approval by clapping the hands and disapproval by hissing.

Coming back to eye-signals, the Incas of Peru, who had not developed a system of writing, had a way of conveying messages by sending swift runners with knotted ropes from one part of their empire to another. The kind of knots in the ropes, along with the colors of the ropes themselves, would tell the story.

Other primitive peoples used notched sticks to carry their thoughts at a distance. These methods of communication come perhaps closer to primitive forms of writing than to substitutes for speech, but since writing itself is a substitute for speech, it does not make much difference.

One great and widespread means of communication which probably came long before speech, but which still accompanies it, is gesture. Gesture is usually made with the hands, sometimes the arms, but practically all parts of the body can enter it, particularly the face. One might even say that all facial expressions, smiles, frowns, pouts, etc., are a form of gesture. Everything you do that is perceptible to the eye carries a meaning, and to that extent is language.

Here again, as in the case of sounds, we find differences. Gesture may be very simple and elementary, conveying a single, simple emotion; or it may be turned into a thoroughgoing, complicated system that comes close enough to a spoken language to be able to replace it.

Ushers in large theaters have a whole set of gestures which they use to indicate to each other at a distance what seats available and where. Traffic policemen, baseball umpires, football referees, TV directors, all have sets of gestures that carry limited but specific meanings (on TV, for instance, a gesture of cutting the throat, made by the director to the actor, means "Time's up! Finish your speech at once!") These are languages, but they are limited in scope and restricted to a single field.

But there are gesture languages that are unrestricted and complete. Our American Indians, particularly the Plains tribes, has a system of gestures or sign-language that enabled members of different tribes, speaking totally different languages, to communicate with one another, and also with the white man, without the least trouble and on all sorts of topics. Here are a few samples of this sign-language. To indicate that he was feeling sad, the Indian would point to his heart, then draw his hand down and away in the direction of the ground: "My heart is low" would be a literal spoken translation. If he wanted to indicate "autumn," he would first make the sign for tree: open left hand, thumb and fingers spread, back outward, about the height of the shoulder, moved slowly upward, to indicate growth; then the sign for a falling leaf, drawing the hand down with a fluttering motion: "When trees lose their leaves."

This Indian sign-language is so effective that it has been adopted, with some changes, by the International Boy Scouts, who use it at their jamborees, where Scouts of different nationalities and languages come together. The deaf-mute language is even more thorough, and it is said that as many as three hundred thousand different meanings can be expressed with it.

Gesture language almost certainly came before spoken language. It works well. It can be used among people of different nations. Why, then, did not mankind evolve a universal sign language in the place of many spoken tongues?

There are a few good reasons. Sign language requires visibility. You cannot talk by gestures around a corner, or where any object, such as a door, stands between you and the person you are "speaking" to. You cannot sign-talk in the dark. The spoken language, on the other hand, can be used in the dark and around obstacles. Gesture language ties up your hands; but speech permits you to work and talk at the same time. Sign language ties up your eyes; spoken language allows you to listen and at the same time look elsewhere.

Last of all, sign language is not any more truly international than speech, unless you make it so. We are often struck by the strangeness of gestures employed by foreigners, while they find our own gestures equally strange. If you hold your hand out palm upward, then bend your fingers several times toward yourself, in American gesture language you indicate that you want the other person to come toward you; but to a Frenchman or an Italian, that gesture would mean "good-bye." The reverse gesture, with the palm of the hand down, would mean "good-bye" to us and "come here" to them. The only parts of sign language that are truly universal (and even here there is some doubt) are those basic and usually unconscious facial expressions that show fear, dislike, pleasure, disappointment, etc.--the smile, the frown, the pout, and a few more. Other gestures, particularly those made with the hands, depend for their understanding on exactly the same thing that spoken words depend on--a previous arrangement on the part of two or more people by which they agree that the particular sign shall have a particular meaning.

So we are pretty much back where we started. Speech, as we have developed it, is the best, simplest, easiest, most convenient way of transferring our thoughts to others. Other ways of communication can help, or be used on special occasions, but they, like speech, have to depend on previous arrangement that a certain sign, visible to the eye or audible to the ear, shall carry a certain meaning. Without this previous arrangement, everything falls into confusion, and the real purpose of language (any kind of language) fails.

The real purpose of language is to carry meaning--to transfer thought from one human brain to another. If language doesn't do this, it isn't language--it is just sound, light, or meaningless gesture.

Would it be worthwhile to have a system by which the same symbol, or sound, or gesture would mean the same thing to all men? It probably would.

"LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DEAFNESS"

Source Unknown

For Hearing Children

We live in a world of sound and movement. All about us are sounds resulting from some sort of activity. They may be the noisy sounds of industry or traffic; the quieter sounds from within the home; or the outdoor sounds of birds, the wind, or some other sound in nature.

Through hearing these sounds we are able to know, without seeing, what is going on around us. We have learned this through a long series of sound experiences which begin very early in life.

The first time an infant becomes aware of sound he invariably responds by jumping and, as he develops, the sounds begin to take on meaning. He later recognizes his mother's voice, a door opening, or a door closing. As the child gets older, he learns that when the car door closes his daddy has come home. He comes to recognize the sound of a vacuum sweeper or the sounds coming from the kitchen where his mother is busy. He is getting to know the meaning of sound. He is learning through sound experiences which is the first step in communication--not between one person and another but between a person and sounds which stem from persons or incidents or things (dog, car, etc.) in his environment. He learns to make sound associations, and he begins to learn as he forms concepts from his first sound experiences.

As he develops, he becomes aware of the human voice, as well as other sounds in his surroundings. The human voice is most significant and vital to learning because it makes speech which is the natural means of communication among human beings. As the human voice carries language to the child, he learns to fit words, then phrases, then sentences to concepts he is forming. These language experiences constitute a most vital learning process for him.

However, the human voice carries more than just ideas or concepts. It also carries feelings and emotions which help to set up rapport between the child and his environment. By the tone of the mother's voice, the child senses her affection which gives him a sense of security and helps him develop socially and emotionally. He recognizes disapproval or approval in the tone of voices about him, which modify the interpretation of what he hears. From sound experiences and speech and language, with the emotional color background of speech, he has wealth of material for learning language.

The learning of language is a gradual process. At first, the child makes no attempt to talk. He learns to interpret and to understand many words before he tries to say them and, thus, builds up a meaningful hearing or receptive vocabulary before he begins expressing himself in language. He first attempts words and phrases, and then sentences. By the time he is ready for school, he has a vocabulary of 2,500 to 4,000 words or more. He uses simple sentences, compound sentences, compound subjects and predicates, conjunctions, knows colors and numbers, knows words that have to do with quality, size, etc. He has a background in word meaning and can use and express his ideas in competent language.

For Deaf Children

The deaf child misses almost all sound experiences. He does not hear the sound of a car or his mother's or father's voice. He does not hear speech and language. He misses words and sentences which are symbols for ideas and consequently, is unable to form associations in his mind between an incident, a person, or thing, and its language symbol. He loses, too, that element of meaning carried in the tone of voice and in the nuances of speech which convey meaning. However, in looking for clues, the deaf child uses his eyes to try to interpret something from the facial expression of a person speaking. A mother may be frowning while talking, and a hearing child knows through the tone of her voice that she is not really displeased while a deaf child will only "read his mother's face." We, too, in our efforts to help a deaf child understand us, may sometimes have a somewhat severe expression on our faces when our feeling is only one of deep interest. Consequently, it is well for us to be aware of the value of facial expressions in setting up good feeling on the part of the child and also as a vital factor in sensing language meaning.

There will be an ever increasing need for "knowing what we mean" as the child develops and looks more and more for interpretation of life about him. His inability to understand language constantly thwarts him and, with some children, may affect their behavior.

Deaf children only know what they see, and usually the brighter the child, the more he wants to know. If he does not grasp immediately what is said to him, he becomes frustrated. Because of failure in communicating, it is not unusual for a deaf child to be impatient and frustrated and even to go into tantrums. There is reasonable basis for this type of behavior because of lack of communication, but it adds to the social handicaps of language deficiency.

Because of the lack of normal language-learning experiences, we find a resulting educational retardation with deaf children. Language is a tool for learning, and language and mental development go hand-in-hand. Ideas must be conveyed through language and, consequently, language is necessary not only for communication but also for mental growth. Relations between situations, reasons, results, judgments, conclusions--all must be expressed in language in order to be meaningful to the deaf child and to help him understand.

The effects of this language disability show up early in educational achievement because the complicating factor that the child cannot hear makes the learning of language a slow and difficult process. The natural way to learn language is through hearing. The hearing child takes it as it comes and learns language in a completely passive way. The deaf child, on the other hand, must be taught language and speech, which makes learning of language active rather than passive. In addition, learning of language through hearing--which is the natural method--is much more rapid than learning it through vision, a fact also contributing to the deaf child's educational retardation.

The deaf child does not get stimulation of the sound of things. To demonstrate significance of sound as a basis for learning, Miss Fitzgerald noted that, while walking through the park with a group of deaf children, they were nearing a waterfall. Even though the sound became louder as they were approaching it, the children did not hear the water, but when one child saw the water he called the attention of the other children to it. The sound of the water was beautiful, but the children were unaware of it. To them it was just water moving. The incompleteness of the concept is very significant. We cannot emphasize sufficiently the importance on our part of trying constantly to understand what it means to be deaf in relation to language and learning. We find that a child who had language before he became deaf already has a language sense--an orientation of words in sequence. The deaf child lacks this sense of orderly arrangement of language, and the problem of orienting language in natural, orderly sequence becomes a difficult and complicated task for him.

In teaching language to the deaf, every possible sensory approach should be employed. Deaf children must see an object and feel it for tactile quality, sense its weight, its elasticity, and, if it is edible, taste it. We must help them to experience every possible avenue to full understanding.

"LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH HEARING IMPAIRMENT"

Early Language Intervention
McCormick and Schiefelbusch
1984

A child who has difficulty hearing speech naturally will have difficulty acquiring oral language. Rather than being a learning device, language becomes a barrier, preventing full realization of academic, intellectual, and social potentials. About 5% of school-aged children have some hearing loss (Davis & Silverman, 1970). This percentage increased steadily to over 17% for persons aged 65 and over. The total number of persons with a significant bilateral (both ears) hearing loss is about seven million.

The severity of a child's language difficulties depends on the age of onset of the hearing loss and the degree of loss. Of the two major sources of hearing impairment, genetic conditions account for 40% to 60% of all causes of deafness. Of the fifty-seven identified forms of genetic deafness, ten also involve visual problems (Larson & Miller, 1978). Disease and trauma are the second major contributors to deafness. Among the most prevalent diseases are bacterial and viral infections such as maternal rubella, meningitis, and serious otitis media. Trauma, usually resulting from blows to the head, birth complications, and exposure to sounds of great intensity and duration, also account for some damage to the auditory system. Each of the major types of hearing loss--conductive, sensorineural, and mixed--has a different prognosis and a somewhat different effect on language and communication.

Conductive Hearing Loss

Conductive hearing losses are due to abnormalities or problems associated with the outer or middle ear. The problem is usually a malformation or blockage that prevents clear transmission of sound waves to the inner ear. Examples are impounded wax, infections in the middle ear, excess fluid in the eustachian tube, or interruptions in the middle ear bones. The primary effect of a conductive problem is loss of hearing sensitivity due to the fact that the level of sound reaching the inner ear is reduced. Conductive impairments are usually amenable to medical intervention (removal of the blockage) or amplification (a hearing aid).

Sensorineural Hearing Loss

Sensorineural hearing loss is the result of damage or disease in some portion of the inner ear, auditory nerve, and/or the neural pathways. The signal may not reach the brain at all or may arrive in a highly distorted form. Usually sound impulses remain unclear and distorted even when amplification is provided. Medical and surgical procedures are of limited usefulness with this type of hearing loss. A mixed hearing loss is a combination of sensorineural and conductive losses. The two exist simultaneously. There may be some benefits from amplification if the conductive loss is the greater, but even then the prognosis for sound discrimination is generally poor.

In addition to understanding the type of hearing loss a child has, a clinician must determine the degree of loss and the potential effects of the loss on the child's ability to hear everyday speech. Sharpness and range of hearing are measured by a device called an audiometer. Threshold measurements, the faintest level of sound that the child can reliably detect, are recorded on an audiogram.

Sound intensity is measured in decibels (dB). (The softest sound a normal hearing child can perceive is defined as 0 dB; a rock concert would measure about 100 dB.) Larger dB numbers represent increasingly louder sounds. Children with mild hearing losses (26-40 dB) may have a mild auditory learning dysfunction with resulting inattention, mild language delay, and mild speech problems. The child hears the louder voiced speech sounds, but may miss some of the less intense speech sounds like voiceless stops and fricatives. She may have to work harder in school to hear relevant instructions and, thus, may be subject to fatigue and erratic academic performance. The term "deaf" is usually reserved for those children with over a 70 dB loss through the speech range. If the loss is present before one year of age, these children will not develop speech and language spontaneously (Northern & Lemme, 1982).

Differences among children due to such factors as intelligence, emotional stability, and socialization, plus variations attributable to age of onset and degree and type of impairment preclude description of the language learning characteristics of an "average" hearing impaired child. Knowing that a child is hearing impaired does not tell a teacher or clinician the quality or quantity of language to expect or the child's programming needs.

The greatest controversy in the area of educational programming for the hearing impaired concerns the extent to which deaf children should be taught to produce and understand speech. Some insist that a "purely oral" method is best for helping deaf children develop speech and language skills and discourage the use of signs and gestures. Other educators feel that manual systems should be used along with speech to facilitate more "natural" communication. Despite a considerable volume of research addressing the issue, little progress has been made towards its resolution, especially regarding children with severe impairments. Most advocate a multisensory approach called Total Communication. These programs use a variety of methods to teach students to express themselves by speaking and signing (supplemented with fingerspelling as needed), and to understand others through speechreading, auditory training, signs, and fingerspelling.

Very little specific information about the rates or stages of language acquisition for hearing impaired children is available. When language is significantly delayed, it is undoubtedly an effect of deficiencies in both linguistic and cognitive experiences. When all other factors are equal, the hearing impairment is diagnosed early, and the quality and quantity of home communication experiences approach normal standards, language performance (oral and/or manual) and achievement in other areas may parallel or even exceed that of hearing youngsters (Moore, 1974, 1977; Wilbur, 1976). Exactly how hearing impaired children integrate whatever they do hear with their visual and tactile input is not clearly understood, but we can assume that tactile modalities play an important role.

The vast majority of hearing impaired students--over 70%--are being educated in regular classrooms (Nober, 1982). However, the combination of visual and hearing impairments, with or without other physical problems, calls for a highly individualized approach to programming and interdisciplinary decision making. The intellectual level of these children may range from gifted to profoundly retarded, and the vast majority experience severe communication difficulties.

HEARING AND DEAF, EACH MAY BE VIEWED DIFFERENTLY . . .

by Roslyn Rosen, Ed.D.

Attitudes color the way people think, feel, and act towards other people. Attitudes can affect explanations for and views of different people. Here are some examples:

Hearing	Deaf
He's good looking Hmm. Nice.	He's good looking. He's too cute to be deaf.
He wears glasses. Oh?	He wears a hearing aid. He's got a problem.
He can't sign. He doesn't have to.	He can't talk. He must keep trying.
He has good speech. So?	He has good speech. He must be smart.
He knows American Sign Language. Wow! He's talented.	He knows American Sign Language. OK, but does he know English?
He writes well. He's well educated.	He writes well. But he still can't talk.
He gets a "C" in school. He can do better!	He gets a "C" in school. Great, for a deaf person!
He's crossing the street. He'll make it.	He's crossing the street. Boy Scout, come and do your good deed.
He applies for a job. Resume looks good--let's try him.	He applies for a job. Him? He has too many faults.
He's talking with coworkers. He's discussing ideas.	He's talking with coworkers. He's gossiping.
He's outspoken. He's concerned and involved.	He's outspoken. He's always complaining.
He gets a job promotion. He deserves it.	He gets a job promotion. He's a token.
His secretary answers the phone. He's important!	His secretary answers the phone. He has to depend on her!
He starts his own business. He's ambitious.	He starts his own business. He's crazy.
He marries a deaf girl. He's noble.	He marries a hearing girl. She'll help him.

He drives a car and doesn't hear sirens.
That's OK. The radio was on.

He's on his honeymoon.
He'll have no time to talk.

His kid joins in the conversation.
Kids should be seen, not heard.

He gives a presentation.
He's very good.

He drives a car and doesn't hear sirens.
Deaf drivers are dangerous.

He's on his honeymoon.
How will he talk in the dark?

His kid joins in the conversation.
Smart kid, helping his father.

He gives a presentation.
The interpreter's very good.

THE DEAF SUBCULTURE

By Kathryn P. Meadow

There are several different subcultures or subcommunities or worlds that may be inhabited by those who live with a profound hearing loss. This observation can be illustrated by pointing out that estimates of the number of deaf persons in the United States vary from 200,000 to 2,000,000. The smaller number includes only those persons who are profoundly deaf and who became deaf before they acquired language. The larger number includes persons with mild hearing losses, that is, the hard of hearing and those who became deaf in their middle or later years. Even within the smaller group there are several subgroups.

One small but very vocal subgroup within the deaf population is comprised of those who use only oral or vocal means of communication. Most attended either private schools for the deaf or public schools for hearing students. They associate almost exclusively with friends and relatives who have normal hearing. Thus they are not truly members of a deaf subculture.

Most of those who are profoundly deaf, however, do participate to one degree or another in a cohesive subculture that has many of the dimensions of other minority group organizations. For profound deafness is much more than a medical diagnosis: it is a cultural phenomenon in which social, emotional, linguistic, and intellectual patterns and problems are inextricably bound together.

Cultural Characteristics

A number of distinct characteristics can be listed that illustrate the existence of a deaf subculture.

1. There is a great deal of "in-marriage" among deaf persons. In a survey of the deaf population of New York State, for example, it was found that only 5% of women born deaf and about 9% of women who became deaf before the age of six were married to hearing men. That is, about 95% of deaf adults are married to other deaf persons.

2. There are a number of voluntary organizations whose members are almost all deaf. The National Association of the Deaf is the major group, but almost every state has an association as well.

3. Other groups include a national deaf sports organization that sends delegates to the World Deaf Olympics and a deaf fraternal order that offers special insurance to members. There are deaf religious organizations and numerous deaf social clubs in every metropolitan area.

4. In recent years, some innovative and very important new kinds of activities have developed within the deaf community. One of these is the National Theater of the Deaf. This is a troupe of deaf actors and actresses performing in repertory in this country and abroad. Their use of mime and sign language provides beautiful and unusual theater

experiences for deaf and hearing persons alike. Another recent development that has importance for the deaf subculture is the television news broadcasts in sign language that are springing up in many parts of the country.

5. The tradition of residential schooling in state operated schools for the deaf is important for maintenance and transmission of the deaf subculture--or of the feeling of belonging to a definite "in group." Almost every state operates a school for the deaf. Most accept children as resident students between the ages of 5 and 21, although some admit children as young as three years old. For many of these children, the staff members at the residential school become surrogate parents and, as such, teach the children what it means to be deaf and how to cope with the social, psychological, and situational hazards involved. The children are thereby oriented to participation in the deaf subculture. Many of the teachers are deaf themselves.

6. The most important, the most visible, and the most salient feature of the deaf subculture I have left for last. This feature is American Sign Language, which is used perhaps most of the time, but at least part of the time, by 75% of deaf adults in the United States. This figure is in striking contrast to the proportion of hearing parents of deaf children. One major survey found that only 12% of deaf adults have any hearing family members who know sign language at all.

The Significance of Language

Language is often one of the most important distinguishing features of a subgroup within a society. It can serve as a cohesive, defining source of pride and positive identification and, simultaneously, as a focus for stigma and ridicule from members of the majority culture. Sign language is a system of gestures corresponding to single words or to global concepts. The form used in the United States was derived from the natural sign language of the French deaf and the methodical signs for incorporating French grammatical details invented by the Abbe de l'Epee after 1750. Since this common beginning, the two systems have diverged so that similarity between sign languages in France and the United States has been reduced. However, the differences are not as great as those between American and British sign languages. Periodically there is a movement to internationalize sign language so that it can be universally understood by deaf people throughout the world. To date, there has been little progress in this direction.

Sign language has profound personal and social meaning for most deaf adults, symbolizing their membership in the deaf subculture. I have already pointed out that only 12% of deaf adults have any hearing relatives--including parents--who have knowledge of sign language. Obviously, then, deaf persons usually do not learn sign language from their parents. This is one of the most unusual features of the language and of the subculture. It is also symbolic of a tremendously important aspect of the meaning of deafness. There must be a tremendous gap between parents and children who do not use the same language.

This brings up a question that mystifies many hearing persons: How do the deaf learn sign language? The answer depends upon the life pattern of the deaf person involved. The period in the life cycle during which sign language is acquired is considered by most deaf persons to be the time during which they become part of the deaf community. There are several possible patterns.

Subgroup #1--The first, but very small, group consists of those deaf persons who are exposed to American Sign Language from birth or early infancy. These are the deaf children of deaf parents (8% to 10% of the total deaf population). Some kinds of deafness are hereditary. If two congenitally deaf persons marry, there is a 30 - 40% chance that one or more of their offspring also will be deaf.

In this small group, sign language is acquired in the same way that oral language is acquired by the normally hearing child of hearing parents. Some of the research we have done at the University of California, San Francisco, shows that, under optimum conditions, sign language is learned at the same rate, in the same stages, and in almost the same sequence as is spoken English. There are baby signs (that is, baby versions of adult signs) just as there is baby talk in spoken language.

Most deaf children of deaf parents learn sign language before they start school. We must look to the importance of the state residential schools for the deaf to understand the next facet of this account. To adults who are part of the deaf subculture, a residential school seems the most appropriate place for a deaf child to go to school, and they go to considerable trouble to make sure that their deaf children go there. Many such children are enrolled at the earliest age for admittance, usually before they are six years old.

Subgroup #2--The second group to be socialized to the deaf subculture through the acquisition of sign language includes the deaf children of hearing parents who enroll in residential schools at about the age of six. When they enroll, they become friends with the deaf children of deaf parents who teach them their own version of sign language. Thus, we see the interesting phenomenon of a language that is transmitted primarily not from adult to child but, instead, from child to child. Some of the adults who teach or who serve as dormitory counselors in residential schools are themselves deaf and know sign language. However, until recently there was a general ban against sign language even in schools for the deaf. This meant that no formal sign language classes were taught, at the same time when most of the deaf teachers (who know sign language) had little contact with younger children because they taught only the upper grades.

Why, you may ask, is sign language so stigmatized? Why would a child who hears little, who hears distorted sound, or who hears only selective parts of the sound spectrum be deprived of a visual means of learning language and, thus, deprived of communication that would enable him or her to engage more fully in human interaction?

There is a wide range of both overt and covert reasons for this, many of them the result of a long series of historical developments that were almost accidental. Years ago, for example, the largest proportion of deaf persons became deaf after they had learned to speak. Thus, the tremendous difficulties of acquiring a first language without the benefit of sound were not present in most cases. With changing patterns of medical care and increasing availability of drugs and vaccines to prevent or cure the conditions causing deafness, this picture has changed. However, the old attitudes remain.

The theory behind the ban against sign language states that if a child is allowed to do something easy (that is, to learn sign language), he or she will not bother to do something difficult (that is, to learn spoken language). This is the commonly expressed rationale for the tremendous controversy. However, we must not overlook some of the possible covert or unconscious reasons.

Deafness is an invisible handicap. It is coping aids and behaviors that make deafness visible--that is, hearing aids, and sign language. (Vocal quality makes deafness audible, if not visible, since almost all profoundly deaf persons have an unusual voice quality.) Hearing parents usually experience the hearing handicap of a child as a cause for sorrow and would like to deny that the child is deaf, if at all possible. Thus, they may try to prevent him or her from learning sign language--and many educators support the parents in this. The stigma attached to sign language by the hearing community, the stares and averted gazes that meet the use of this "different" mode of communication, are enough to make most parents shudder.

Another factor that may enter the picture in North America is that it seems to be a national characteristic to be generally suspicious of the conspicuous use of facial expression and the free use of the arms and the body for gestures. Thus, the deaf, like persons from Latin America and Southern Europe, are regarded with a measure of suspicion and distaste when they use their hands, faces, and bodies freely. Our Anglo-Saxon roots contribute to our preference for dignified, stiff, less dramatic kinds of communication despite the grace and beauty that many sign language users attain.

Subgroup #3--A third group of participants in the deaf subculture consists of those deaf children, mostly with hearing parents, who switch from an oral day school to a state residential school about the time they are twelve or thirteen. The reason behind many of these transfers is that the children are considered unable to learn spoken language and educators are ready to admit defeat and send the child to an institution where the dreaded signs are learned. This attitude in itself--of allowing sign language only for those who have "failed" to acquire a communicative mode that is labelled "better"--can lead to further stigmatization and further problems of self-image for deaf children.

The attitudes that adolescents may have about sign language are illustrated very poignantly in a novel by Joanne Greenberg, In This Sign. This book is a brilliant sociological document as well as a fascinating character portrayal. It tells the story of a deaf couple who attended a residential school in the early decades of the 1900s. The following passage illustrates earlier attitudes toward the use of a sign language:

> He was eighteen then; Janice was sixteen. She had grown up in the school and knew almost nothing about Outside. She did know Sign, the forbidden language. How confidently she joked and gossiped and talked behind the backs of the instructors. How busy she was and how wise, with plans and ideas, with friends, angers, and the small wars of enemies. To Abel, hand mute in the mind silence of his farm and hearing school, these plans and arguments were so wide a life that they seemed magic--beyond belief. In three months he learned all the Signs that anyone knew. . . .He was made free in a language learned in spite of watchful teachers. Until he began to go with Janice, this language took a part of the places where it was learned. It seemed to smell of standing water, bathroom, shame, hiddenness, and lye cleanser.

Subgroup #4--The last segment of the deaf community to be described is that comprised of deaf persons who enter the subculture after they reach adulthood. Least is known about this group, partly because their numbers are quite small. If a deaf individual has gone all the way through schools that stress oral-only communication, he may have no knowledge of sign language when he graduates from high school. Some deaf students may then seek out deaf peers and ask for sign language instruction. Others may get professional training or go into jobs working with deaf people and learn sign language for that reason. Some oral deaf students matriculate at colleges with special programs for the deaf and take courses in sign language.

These then are some of the major subgroups of the deaf subculture. I may have given the impression that membership in this subculture is exclusive of membership in the majority culture. This is not the case. As with membership in any racial, ethnic, or linguistic subgroup, interaction with the majority culture is a fact of life.

Our lives are enriched if we can move back and forth at will from one culture to another. The more freedom we have to interact within various subcultures, the more opportunities we have to choose the friends and activities most appealing to us. This is as true for deaf adults as for any other group. For the deaf, however, successful interaction depends upon acceptance and understanding from the majority culture. Understanding is an important prerequisite of acceptance and requires time and effort. Nonetheless, those who transcend cultural barriers can find rich rewards.

THE DEAF COMMUNITY

By Jerome D. Schein, Ph.D.

"The Deaf Personality"

Generalizing about the influence of early deafness on personality, writers most often use the word immature. Deaf persons, it is said, exhibit a lack of regard for others, naivete, over-dependency, irresponsibility, tendency to act or react without adequate thought, and inflexibility in problem solving.

If indeed these terms apply to typical members of the deaf community, a logical next question would be: Are these behavioral tendencies the necessary consequences of deafness? Or do these aspects of immaturity arise from a breakdown in the socialization process due to parents' and teachers' failure to contribute the appropriate adult influences?

Much of the material on which generalizations about the deaf personality are based comes from studies of psychiatric patients. Other studies deal with children. Investigations of the personalities of psychiatrically normal deaf adults are rare. Even rarer is research conducted by persons highly skilled in communicating with deaf persons.

One way for researchers to avoid some of the earlier methodological pitfalls is to make comparisons within the deaf community. If deafness is the cause of the personality factors observed, then there should be little differences among those with similar degrees of hearing loss. In such a study, Harris compared the impulse control of deaf children whose parents had normal hearing. Harris reasoned that impulsivity arises from frustrated communication and that since deaf parents generally communicate readily with their deaf children, their children should show greater impulse control. That is, in fact, the result Harris obtained. Of course, he did not attribute this personality difference between the two groups of deaf children solely to the parents' ability to communicate, but it does appear to be a major factor. For our purposes, the study raises doubts about theories that hypothesize that personality is altered solely by prelingual lack of hearing ability. The alternative formulation that personality characteristics reflect upbringing seems more tenable. It is also more hopeful. If negative traits result from poor socialization practices, then altering the practices can eliminate the negative features.

Another view of the deaf community's personality generates the adjective independent. Considering the obstacles facing deaf people, the extensive facilities they have created for their own welfare are awesome. As noted above, deaf organizations provide recreation, insurance, and political action. Outside of work, the deaf community maintains independent social activities. This is not to say that deaf people do not participate in affairs of the larger society, but rather that the deaf community offers additional avocational options.

Few people outside the deaf community are aware that deaf people lobbied against being granted the extra income tax exemption Congress awarded blind people in 1946. The record for that Congressional session shows that the president of the National Association of the Deaf testified in opposition to the extra exemption for the deaf, largely on the grounds that they did not wish to be singled out for special treatment. Today, many deaf people disagree with that extremely independent position. The point remains that that position was at one time taken by the deaf community's leadership.

Deaf people have also been characterized as passive, overaccepting. In recent years, the deaf community, like other minority groups, has become more politically active. The movement of the headquarters of the National Association of the Deaf to Washington, D.C., signaled a vigorous approach to the federal agencies on behalf of projects important to deaf people. A somewhat less energetic movement can be discerned within the states. For the most part, however, deaf political action has been less militant than that of other minority groups. It has largely taken the form of well-reasoned appeals to administrators and legislators for equity and justice.

Identifying traits that characterize groups can be useful in assessing progress and in planning educational and rehabilitation strategies. However, average tendencies of a group should not obscure individual differences. Furthermore, when circumstances change, the prevailing tendencies may change.

What constitutes a "deaf personality," then, depends on many things, including the observers' points of view. Those dealing in psychopathology will see it in the deaf community; those concerned with successful adaptation will observe that. In any case, the character of the deaf community--as of any community--defies simplistic summation. A valid portrait of the deaf personality must clearly emphasize its complexity and modifiability.

Dynamics of the Deaf Community

The observations to this point describe the deaf community as it is now, with only a few historical references to illustrate its dynamic character. The nature of the deaf community has changed repeatedly in response to variations in conditions around it and to differences in its membership.

Many other changes undoubtedly lie ahead. For example, we anticipate positive effects from the federal legislation forbidding discrimination against physically handicapped persons and from court rulings granting deaf people the right to interpreters throughout the legal process. State vocational rehabilitation agencies have begun to increase allocations for deaf clients. Innovations in telecommunications should benefit deaf people, as might other technological advances yet to be introduced. The implementation of P.L. 94-142 ("Education for All Handicapped Children Act") promises educational opportunities for deaf children who have been overlooked. Similar increases in provisions for postsecondary and continuing education will benefit deaf adolescents and adults.

Not all portents are easily read. The deaf population has grown, doubling its proportion of the total population in the last forty years. Still, the relative presence of deafness in the total is miniscule. A greater change is appearing within the deaf population--the balance of adventitiously to congenitally deaf persons has shifted radically; a greater portion of the deaf population is now congenitally deaf. Furthermore, disabilities in addition to deafness are present in an increasing proportion of deaf persons. How these changes in the characteristics of the deaf population will affect its social structure is not clear.

The changes in the nature of the deaf population are happening along with external events that may offset them. For example, educators, in theory, favor placing deaf children in schools with normally hearing children ("mainstreaming"). If this strategy becomes common and residential schools cease to be a major factor in deaf students' education, will the deaf community be markedly altered? Over the past decades, the proportion of deaf children educated in day schools has increased. A corresponding influence on the deaf community's functioning has not been perceptible, but it is early for the effect of this educational change to be apparent.

Another consideration is public opinion. Attempts to acquaint the general public with deafness and to overcome its negative stereotypes are gaining ground. Public opinion, however, can be fickle. Will the appreciation of deaf people continue to grow? The answer obviously contains important consequences for the social and economic lives of deaf persons.

Deaf persons usually experience their disability most keenly when they interact with persons who can hear. Communication is awkward. The deaf person has difficulty understanding because he or she cannot hear, and the hearing person has difficulty because the deaf person's speech may be flawed or absent. The result is frequently mutual withdrawal. Even worse, society generally treats deaf persons with barely disguised hostility or patient condescension. The former is due to the frustrated communication and the latter to the deaf person's appearance of intellectual deficit. Our culture has become heavily audio-dependent, placing deaf people at a severe disadvantage. To counter the disadvantage, the deaf community has evolved.

In the United States, deaf people have customs, morals, and institutions which differ from those of the larger society. These differences have led some to characterize the smaller, parallel society as a "subculture." The terminology is unfortunate. The prefix "sub" in this context may mean "beneath," implying inferiority. We prefer to speak of the deaf community--a grouping of persons who have a common characteristic, loss of hearing. The deaf community consists mostly of deaf people who communicate fluently in sign language and who share a wide variety of interests. Along with these shared traits have grown organizations, mores, and literature which are special to deaf people. Existing within and in continuous relation with the larger communities of the United States, the deaf community naturally adopts much of them; thus, it is not in all respects unique. Often its general practices and institutions are adapted so subtly as not at first to appear different. Yet, taken as a whole, the deaf community emerges as a distinctive social entity, marked by the satisfaction deaf people usually find in company with each other.

The deaf community provides a fascinating example of the human capacity for adaptation. Study of its structure also affords an excellent means of understanding the negative social impact of deafness and the potential for overcoming it.

Characteristics of the Deaf Community

Size of the Deaf Community--Relevant to the psychology and sociology of deafness is the minority status of deaf persons. Their condition--inability to hear and understand speech through the ear alone--is relatively infrequent, affecting about eight of every 1000 persons in the United States. Furthermore, persons who lost, or never had, their hearing before adulthood make up only 0.2 percent of the population.

The point in life at which deafness begins matters greatly in determining its social consequences. Those whose deafness occurred before 19 years of age tend to be relatively homogeneous with respect to their status in the deaf community. This group has been termed prevocationally deaf. Prevocationally deaf persons primarily tend to associate with other prevocationally deaf persons; those deafened in adulthood, however, share this affiliative tendency to a much lesser degree. As a rule, the earlier the age at onset, the greater the probability of association with other deaf persons. The deaf community, then, consists mostly of prevocationally deaf persons, who number about 410,000 in the United States--a small minority of the total population. Being relatively very small, the deaf community can be easily ignored by the majority. At the same time, the tendencies toward homogeneity within the deaf community are increased by its comparatively small membership.

In the rest of this chapter, the term deaf refers to those whose loss occurred prevocationally. Any exceptions are duly noted.

Location of the Deaf Community

Sociologists generally include geographical proximity as a component of the definition of "community." Here we do not. Even when physically dispersed, deaf people find commonality of interests, language, and identification. The deaf community's boundaries lie outside of city and county lines; its purlieus are conceptual, not concrete. Deaf people relate to each other across great distances. National meetings draw sizable proportions of the deaf population; local conclaves can attract virtually the entire body of deaf adults from a wide radius. Deaf friendships and associations persist despite substantial geographical separation and limited access to telecommunications. The deaf community, therefore, extends across the United States, encompassing deaf adults in virtually every city in every state.

Communication in the Deaf Community

The lingua franca of deaf people is sign language. Until recently, linguists did not accept sign language as a true language. Rather, it was considered to be merely a means of "writing English in the air." Scholars now recognize American Sign Language (ASL) as a distinct language, having a unique syntax as well as a distinct vocabulary.

ASL is seldom taught to deaf children in school. Indeed, for many years, deaf children were often forbidden to sign in classrooms. Sign language, therefore, has been preserved by passing it along from deaf person to deaf person, a primitive situation not encouraging linguistic purity. ASL dialects are common, dictionaries are few, and published grammars are nonexistent. Nonetheless, signing remains the dominant means of communication between prevocationally deaf adults. Most deaf persons do, of course, use other means of communication: speaking, lipreading, listening to amplified speech, writing, and reading. But the method that sets them apart is manual communication--the use of sign language and fingerspelling to exchange thoughts and feelings with each other.

Family Background

Most deaf people had parents who could hear. More than 90 percent of prevocationally deaf adults come from families all of whose members had normal hearing. These parents who lack experience with deafness often react badly to the child's audiological diagnosis, rejecting the child along with the knowledge of his disability. Later the family cannot itself provide satisfactory role models for the deaf adolescent. In other words, the typical family with a deaf child does not adequately fulfill its role in the socialization process assigned to it by our culture.

By contrast, as investigations in the last two decades have shown, deaf children of deaf parents are more successful, both in school and in adulthood, than deaf children of normally hearing parents. The reasons for this generalization may be found in the earlier acceptance by deaf parents of deafness in their children, coupled with fewer delays and false starts in dealing with the problems. More effective communication between deaf parents and deaf child also plays a role in accelerating intellectual development. Planning for adolescence and adulthood is apt to be more realistic--less depressed by the child's handicap and more optimistic about the child's potential than is usually true of unsophisticated parents.

Education

There is no written evidence of a deaf community in the United States before the founding of the first permanent public school for deaf children in 1817. In any case, within the following two decades an organization of deaf adults was established. The conventional school, then, may be thought of as the deaf community's seedbed.

For most deaf persons, the school affords their first contacts with other deaf individuals. It is the setting in which deaf persons learn how others like themselves cope with loss of hearing. They meet deaf peers with whom they form lifelong associations and from whom they learn the mores, the language, and the adaptive behaviors that distinguish deaf people as a social group.

Deaf adolescents and adults do not enter postsecondary education as frequently as persons in the general population. Early in the present century, deaf students entered higher education at a rate equal to that of the general population. By 1950, the discrepancy had grown to nearly seven times; that is, attendance in higher education was nearly seven times greater for the general than for the deaf population. The discrepancy in rates has been markedly reduced in the last two decades, but it remains distressingly high. Deaf students enter higher education about one-third as often as their peers in the general population.

Though most deaf students have attended Gallaudet College for their higher education, some have gone to other schools. Founded in 1864, Gallaudet College, the only liberal arts college in the world exclusively for deaf undergraduates, has held a commanding position as a source of leadership in the deaf community. To broaden the range of educational choices, Congress in 1965 established the National Technical Institute for the Deaf (NTID). This institution provides additional opportunities for deaf students to prepare for employment, especially in technical and professional fields. Deaf students who successfully graduated from other universities before 1960 usually have done so without special assistance. Presently, however, a number of institutions have established programs for deaf college students that include interpreting, tutoring, and counselling. As these programs attract more deaf students, some changes may be anticipated in the character of the leadership of the deaf community that are likely to bring an increasing breadth of experiences and aspirations to it. This increasing breadth should invigorate the deaf community, strengthening its coping ability.

Marriage

Continuing a trend noted repeatedly over the last half century, deaf adults marry less frequently than their general population age peers. The proportion of single, never married adults is nearly three times greater in the deaf than in the general population.

Deaf persons also differ from the general population in age at first marriage. Deaf persons, on the average, marry later in life than persons in general. Once married, however, deaf persons have nearly an equal probability of maintaining the marriage. The proportions of the deaf and the general populations who are divorced have become almost identical: 3.6 percent for the general population, 3.8 percent for the deaf population.

When deaf adults marry, they most often marry other deaf adults. The earlier in childhood hearing is lost, the more likely that the spouse will also be deaf. Only 12 percent of prevocationally deaf males and 14 percent of females have married normally hearing persons. Some evidence has been found of greater stability in marriages between deaf persons than between deaf and nondeaf partners. The prevailing tendency to choose a deaf spouse, in many instances, connotes maturity; in others, it merely reflects the workings of propinquity.

Deaf women have fewer children than the average for the general population. This lower fertility rate is related to the mother's age at onset of deafness: born-deaf women bear proportionally fewer children than do those with later onsets of deafness. A self-imposed eugenics practice may be operating or other personal and economic factors may account for this reduced rate of reproduction. In any event, even if all her offspring were deaf, the average deaf woman does not alone bear sufficient children at a sufficient rate to maintain prevocational deafness in the population.

The majority of offspring of marriages having at least one prevocationally deaf parent are normally hearing--88 percent overall. However, the rate for deafness in children differs significantly between marriages in which one partner is deaf and the other unafflicted--7.5 percent--and those in which both are congenitally deaf--18.6 percent. Nevertheless, for the group as a whole, the a priori expectation on the birth of a child to deaf parents is that the child's hearing will be normal.

It is reassuring to note, therefore, that deaf parents are also successful in raising their normally hearing children. Many sons and daughters of deaf parents have become eminent entertainers, lawyers, physicians, educators. Their parents have been ingenious in anticipating and overcoming problems associated with deafness. The children, in turn, have often sought careers in education and rehabilitation serving deaf people. For the sake of society as a whole, as well as for the benefit of the deaf community, a thorough investigation should be undertaken of the factors that contribute to deaf persons becoming good parents.

Occupational Status

Deaf adults enter the labor force at a rate somewhat higher than that for the general population--83 percent for the deaf and 80 percent for the general population. Deaf workers suffered less unemployment than workers in general. The trend was reversed, however, for females. Furthermore, nonwhite deaf persons, male and female, did worse in the labor market than nonwhite persons generally. What has happened to deaf workers in the recent economic decline remains unstudied. Specialists in deafness have expressed grave concern that economic depression would more adversely affect deaf persons than others.

General employment-unemployment statistics tell only a small part of the labor force story. In what industries are deaf persons employed? Every industry employs some deaf workers. The heaviest concentrations are in manufacturing of both durable and nondurable goods. The lowest rates are for mining and entertainment and recreation services.

Nearly 80 percent of employed deaf persons work for private companies; only about 2 percent have their own businesses. Of the remainder, about 16 percent of deaf workers hold government jobs or work for their families.

What occupational positions do deaf persons fill? Disappointingly few deaf persons are employed in professional and technical careers. A comparatively high proportion have manufacturing jobs (nontransit operatives). But the important point is that some deaf persons are in every category of employment. This fact provides a strong antidote to vocational stereotyping, a condition afflicting many handicapped persons. Deaf persons have succeeded and continue to succeed in a broad range of occupations. Disproportionate numbers may enter one or another occupation or industry at a given time, but this occurs because of factors other than the abilities of deaf workers. Deaf people not unreasonably seek employment where other deaf people work. They desire companionship at work as at play. Also, they encounter less prejudice in plants that have deaf employees. Employer resistance to hiring deaf people drops after they demonstrate satisfactory performance, thus encouraging the employer to hire more deaf persons.

Counselors and job placement personnel frequently recommend that the deaf client train and apply for positions in industries that are familiar to them as being receptive, rather than developing new opportunities. This tendency to follow the easiest path in job placement becomes cumulatively harmful to deaf people as the labor market shifts. By 1990, for example, the number of positions open to service workers will be greatly increased, while blue-collar jobs will be sharply decreased. The largest proportion of employment will be in white-collar jobs. Compare these Bureau of Labor Statistics projections to the current occupational distribution of the deaf labor force and the reason for concern about the next decade is obvious, as is the necessity for encouraging deaf future workers to shift their vocational sights and set them on positions not previously held by many, if any, deaf persons.

A related problem is underemployment. Underemployment remains a somewhat vague concept, so it presents measurement problems. Yet it has intuitive appeal--most people understand what it means. Though the precise extent is not known, deaf workers appear to suffer underemployment with disproportionate frequency as compared to the general population. They remain in entry jobs for years after others who entered at the same time are promoted; they fail to obtain employment commensurate with their education and experience. Future vocational rehabilitation strategies should be directed toward eliminating underemployment as well as unemployment.

Economic Status

Deafness imposes a severe penalty on the purse. Median personal income fell far below national averages. The deaf adult earned only 72 percent as much as the average adult in the general population. Note that this finding held despite the higher overall labor force participation and lower unemployment of deaf adults. The previous references to underemployment seem particularly relevant to explaining this poor economic performance. Some members of the deaf community do earn excellent salaries or derive substantial dividends from investments or both. Nevertheless, compared to the nation as a whole, the deaf community does not receive a share of the wealth corresponding to its economic contributions.

Members of the deaf community also find themselves at a disadvantage as consumers in the marketplace. Because of their communication problems, deaf people find shopping difficult. Their access to information is reduced, as is their ability to negotiate at the point of purchase.

Despite these obvious economic penalties of deafness, the U.S. Congress has not granted to deaf people the extra income tax exemption given blind people. The matter has been discussed from time to time, but this curious omission in federal law persists.

ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations of Deaf People

The desire of deaf persons to affiliate with each other finds formal expression in numerous national, state, and local organizations. Almost every state has an association of deaf persons. These, in turn, form the National Association of the Deaf (NAD). NAD is the first national organization of physically handicapped persons in the United States. It owns its headquarters, an office building in a suburb of Washington, D.C., from which it coordinates its member associations' social events, directs research on aspects of deafness, manages a nationwide program to teach sign language, and distributes special appliances for deaf users and literature about deafness aggregating a million dollars in annual sales. The federal government recognizes NAD as the principal advocate for deaf citizens. For the majority of deaf persons, NAD provides the organizational center of their lives.

The American Athletic Association of the Deaf (AAAD) serves many of the physical and recreational needs of deaf persons. It sponsors all kinds of athletic events: skiing, basketball, track and field, etc. AAAD awards trophies to winning football and basketball teams from residential schools. It manages a Hall of Fame for deaf sportsmen and sportswomen. It conducts regional and national annual basketball tournaments. It joins with 30 or more nations in the quadrennial World Games for the Deaf, also called "The Deaf Olympics."

In 1901, a group of deaf leaders incorporated the National Fraternal Society of the Deaf. Their purpose was to provide economical insurance, something deaf persons found difficult, if not impossible, to obtain from commercial sources. The Frat, as it is lovingly known, has grown rapidly; it now holds $7 million in assets to cover $13 million insurance in force and has 13,000 members and 126 lodges (local chapters). In addition to its insurance business, it plays a part in the social lives of deaf people. The Frat also encourages charitable activities by matching its lodges' contributions and offers academic scholarships to its members and their children.

Diverse in other ways, these organizations share characteristics in addition to their national scope: they were founded by and for deaf people, are presently managed by deaf people, and use sign language in the conduct of their internal affairs. There are other organizations of deaf people; for example, the American Professional Society of the Deaf, the Oral Deaf Adult Society, and others. They serve specialized groups within the deaf community, broadening the opportunities for satisfying relationships and outlets for civic drive. The Junior National Association of the Deaf, a branch of NAD, and the National Association of Homes for the Aged Deaf serve constituencies at opposite ends of the age continuum. Most of the larger and many of the smaller religious denominations are represented by national groups; for example, Christian Deaf Fellowship, National Congress of the Jewish Deaf, Catholic Deaf Association. Together, these organizations fulfill almost every variation in deaf persons' affiliative needs.

Organizations for Deaf People

No national charitable organization has ever solicited the general public on behalf of deaf persons. Organizations for deaf persons have either been concerned with education or with other professional affairs. The oldest groups are the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf and the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. Their interests are obvious from their names. The Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, Inc., almost as old as the Conference and the Convention, also concerns itself with the education of deaf children, particularly with the teaching of speech and speechreading and the use of residual hearing. Professional Rehabilitation Workers with the Adult Deaf is, by contrast, only recently founded (1966) and focuses its activities on vocational rehabilitation. Another newcomer is the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, established to improve the quality of manual interpretation--the bridge between hearing and deaf worlds.

These organizations have deaf members, though they are in the minority; organizational control rests with normally hearing persons. Meetings are usually interpreted manually for the benefit of deaf persons, but speech, not sign language, is the principal medium of communication. Relations between organizations of deaf persons and organizations for them have no central point of coordination. The Council of Organizations Serving the Deaf has not succeeded in bringing them together, though relations among the various groups are, for the most part, cordial.

Religion

The early history of services for deaf persons primarily involves religious workers. Almost every church group makes some effort to minister to deaf persons. Frequently, these efforts take the form of missions. Occasionally, religious groups have ordained deaf persons as ministers; the Episcopal Church probably leads in this. Some churches have separate services for deaf congregants. A few churches provide sign language interpretation of regular services.

The little research available indicates that deaf persons participate in religious activities about as often as their normally hearing peers. But the extent to which they find this participation satisfying is not known. Nor do we have an explanation for the somewhat greater tendency toward atheism, agnosticism, and absence of religious interest among deaf than general population adults. Deaf persons do join every religious denomination, but not necessarily in proportion to expectations based on their parents' preferences nor on their numbers in the population.

In deaf marriages, cross religious pairings occur in about one-third of the marriages. Jewish and Catholic males most frequently marry females from other religious groups. Deaf females tend to marry males with the same religious preference: Protestants 85 percent, Catholics 73 percent, Jews 90 percent. Of course, the tendency of most deaf persons to seek a deaf mate reduced the weight given to religious background, especially when age and education are also considered. Nonetheless, religion is a factor in selection of spouse in a majority of deaf marriages. Whether this consonance of religious preference reflects socioeconomic background and related factors or a church based spirituality remains moot. That religion plays a role in deaf adults' social lives, however, seems beyond dispute, even though its nature is not well understood.

Delinquent Behavior

The deaf community gives every appearance of being as law-abiding as or more so than the general population. Unfortunately, crime statistics rarely include hearing impairment among their parameters, so highly precise data are lacking on the relation of deafness to juvenile and adult delinquency. The difficulties deaf persons face in court have been well documented. Since their disability sets them apart, deaf people involved, or suspected of involvement, in crimes would be likely to attract the attention of the news media. The absence of knowledge about deaf persons' criminality, therefore, supports the contention that it is low.

Automobile driving provides abundant opportunities for delinquency. Yet deaf drivers have better records than drivers in general. Deaf drivers received summonses for moving violations at less than half the rate for all drivers over a three-year period. In the case of accident related violations, drivers in general received almost four times more summonses than deaf drivers. Deaf drivers were involved in all accidents recorded in the period, regardless of violations, less than one-third as often as their proportion in the population would predict. The results of this study confirm reports from other areas. They provide no justification for restricting driving privileges because of deafness. In sum, in connection with delinquent behavior, both implicit and explicit evidence supports the contention that deaf people, as a group, earn high marks for citizenship.

Leisure Time Activities

The picture of a deaf person spending lonely hours in isolated inactivity does not fit the majority in the deaf community. Leisure time is a busy time for deaf adults, despite being partially deprived of the enjoyment of most mass entertainment media.

Motion pictures and television programs usually require hearing to appreciate their content. As a counter to the loss of recreational movies, the federal government sponsored Captioned Films for the Deaf (CFD), located in the U.S. Office of Education, which subtitles popular films and distributes them without charge to deaf groups.

The theater provides entertainment as well as a creative outlet for deaf talent. Amateur deaf groups have performed on stage for at least 100 years. Invariably the plays have been adaptations from the standard repertoire. Offstage readers speak the script for the benefit of the nondeaf audience, while actors sign the dialogue. The technique is equally effective with Greek classics, Shakespeare, modern drama, and musical comedies--all of which have been staged by one or another deaf company. Recently, a deaf theatrical literature has emerged, spurred by the major acting companies: the National Theatre of the Deaf and the drama departments at Gallaudet College and National Technical Institute for the Deaf.

A printed literature for deaf readers has grown substantially in recent years. The National Association of the Deaf publishes a widely distributed monthly magazine, The Deaf American, as does the Frat. The residential schools maintain extensive mailing lists for their publications. To encourage cooperation and improve their quality, the journals have their own organization, The Little Paper Family, which meets annually. Independent tabloids, like Silent News, feature material exclusively for and about the deaf community.

As is evident from the extensive support given the American Athletic Association of the Deaf by deaf people, sporting events occupy a high place in the hierarchy of the deaf community's interests. The relatively nonverbal nature of most physical games opens them to enjoyment by deaf people, both as spectators and participants.

Social gatherings also assure deaf people ample recreational outlets. Alumni reunions attract large crowds of deaf people, many of whom did not attend the institutions but who come to the gatherings to visit friends. Organizational meetings provide the occasion for socializing. The importance of these face-to-face meetings stems from the inconvenience of telephoning. Attachments now enable typed messages to be transmitted via the telephone, but such devices are still expensive; in any case, typing slows message exchanges, while also eliminating the important nuances contributed by facial expressions.

SUGGESTIONS AND CHECKPOINTS WHEN TEACHING DEAF STUDENTS

Interpreters

Locate interpreter where he can see you and where he can be clearly seen by the deaf students at all times.

Relating:
- (a) familiarize him with what will be taught and with new and difficult course terms
- (b) encourage interpreter to fill you in on student needs, capabilities, and learning problems
- (c) keep alert to interpretation problems

Lesson Presentation

1. Avoid indefinite terms like "this" and "that."
2. Provide adequate information sheets to supplement and reinforce presentations (especially glossaries of technical terms and expressions used in class).
3. In class questioning and discussion, work at a rate compatible with interpretation and students' abilities.
4. Pitch language, difficulty, and length of presentations to the level of the students.
5. Do not accept the student's statement that he "knows" what you're doing at face value. Check directly. (He probably doesn't realize himself that he hasn't learned something.)
6. Use blackboard or overhead projector to clarify and summarize points before, during, and after lesson.
7. Use diagrams, charts, and visuals freely.
8. Check student's "notes" periodically.
9. Use concrete, literal examples.

Miscellaneous

GRADING:
- (a) Should be an actual indication of progress in those sectors where progress can be expected (q.v., if seriously speech impaired, don't grade on speech ability).
- (b) A confirmation of knowledge growth, skill attainment, and attitude development (keep continuing records to check them).

OBJECTIVES: (a) Clearly define with student what, where, and how course will operate.

(b) Don't spring "surprises" on students.

(c) Expect realistic performance attainment and discipline, and hold students to them.

ATTENTION-GETTING:

(a) Gestures

(b) Tap on shoulders

(c) Flick light switch, and

(d) Stamping on floor (but this vibration can be irritating to some deaf students . . . so also watch "tapping")

LIPREADING: Especially operational with students who have residual hearing; otherwise, just another piece in the puzzle of communication--useful, but not a unique channel. An excellent lip-reader can usually catch less than 40 percent of the sound motions of persons he knows well. Many spoken sounds are produced in areas not visible externally; people use their sound production systems differently; and other things may interfere with lipreading.

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ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF STUDENTS, INTERPRETERS, AND INSTRUCTORS

STUDENT

Role: The deaf student is as much an integral part of the class as his hearing counterparts. Though he receives special support services, such as interpreting and notetaking, this does not mean that he should receive special consideration in relation to attendance and the completion of class assignments. He should also be expected to contribute his share to class discussions.

Responsibilities:

A. Get to class on time.

B. If needed, bring your notetaker binder with an adequate supply of paper.

C. Have your assignments done before class and questions you may have either written down or formed in your mind.

D. Notify the interpreter ahead of time if you cannot attend class on a particular day or if the class will be seeing a movie that he may not be aware of.

INTERPRETER

Role: The interpreter is present in the class to facilitate communication; the instructor is in charge. The interpreter has no authority on the subject material, neither does he control the class. He should not try to answer questions himself but direct questions to the instructor

Responsibilities:

A. Be prompt in meeting classes.

B. Remain until 15 minutes after the hour when a deaf student does not arrive on time.

C. Position himself in the best lighting so that the student can see everything clearly.

D. Interpret or translate the lecture material as near to verbatim as possible.

E. Accurately reverse interpret the deaf student's responses.

F. Remain in the class until all deaf students have left.

INSTRUCTOR

Role: The instructor is there to guide the class through the subject material by presenting that material in a clear, organized manner. He is the authority on the subject and all questions should be directed to him. Deaf students in the class are the INSTRUCTOR'S STUDENTS, not the interpreter's students.

Responsibilities:

A. Introduce the interpreter to the class and explain his function.

B. Obtain a notetaker for the deaf students in the class.

C. Notify the interpreter in advance when he plans to use materials that require special lighting (movies, slides, etc.).

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INFORMATION FOR INSTRUCTORS WITH DEAF STUDENTS IN THEIR CLASSES

Each faculty member has made a commitment to the individuals he encounters in the classroom. It is his aim to communicate clearly and to encourage mutual growth through professor-student interaction. However, with the deaf student who is isolated, for the most part, from the world of sound and must depend primarily on visual clues, effective communication becomes much more difficult. To aid the instructor in his endeavor to provide the best learning situation for the deaf student, the Communication Center of NTID, with the cooperation of faculty members from each of the RIT colleges, has organized this list of suggestions. This list is designed to familiarize the instructor with some of the special problems of the deaf students and offer ways in which these problems might be handled. Each instructor is encouraged to familiarize himself with the entire list and to incorporate into his teaching techniques as many suggestions as he deems appropriate.

ONE-TO-ONE COMMUNICATION

1. It is important to have the student's attention before speaking. The deaf student cannot hear the usual call to attention. He may need a tap on the shoulder, a wave, or other signals to catch his eye.

2. Speak slowly and clearly, enunciating each word, but without exaggerating or overpronouncing. Although it is necessary to speak slowly and clearly, exaggeration and overemphasis distorts lip movements, making lipreading more difficult. Try to enunciate each word, but without force or tension. Short sentences are easier to understand than long sentences.

3. Look directly at the student while speaking. Even a slight turn of the head can obscure the student's vision, making lipreading more difficult. Avoid holding hands and books where they will hide your face.

4. Try to maintain eye contact with the student. Deaf students, like most students, prefer the feeling of direct communications. Eye contact establishes this feeling. Even in the presence of an interpreter, try to communicate to him. The student can then turn to the interpreter as he feels the need.

5. Try to rephrase a thought rather than repeating the same words. Sometimes particular combinations of lip movements are very difficult for a student to lip-read. If he is not understanding you, try to rephrase the sentence.

CLASSROOM SITUATIONS

1. The student should be seated to his best advantage. Generally this is up to the student. It is very helpful, however, if the instructor will assist the student to select an appropriate seat if he fails to do so.

2. Try to avoid standing with your back to a window or other light sources. Looking at someone standing in front of a light source practically blinds the deaf student. Lipreading is difficult if not impossible, since the speaker's face is left in shadow.

3. Notify the interpreter in advance when you plan to use materials that require special lighting. Since it is impossible to lip-read in the dark, the interpreter must have advance notice so necessary lighting can be provided.

4. A brief outline would aid the interpreter and the student to follow the lecture. It is very helpful to a deaf student to know in advance what will be studied next. He will then have a chance to read ahead and study the vocabulary. After the lecture, he can better organize his notes.

5. Try to present new vocabulary in advance. If this is impossible, try to write new vocabulary on the chalkboard or overhead projector since it is difficult, if not impossible, to lip-read or fingerspell the unfamiliar.

6. Visual aids are a tremendous help to deaf students. Since vision is a deaf person's primary channel to receive information, a teaching aid that he can see may help him assimilate this information. Make full use of chalkboards, overhead projectors, films, diagrams, charts, etc.

7. Try to avoid unnecessary pacing and speaking while writing on the chalkboard. It is difficult to lip-read a person in motion and impossible to read from behind. It is preferable to write or draw on the chalkboard, then face the class and explain the work. The overhead projector adapts readily to this type of situation.

8. Slowing the pace of communication often helps to facilitate comprehension. Speakers tend to quicken their pace when familiar with the material. In addition, there is an unavoidable time lag in the presentation when an interpreter is involved. Try to allow a little extra time for the student to ask or answer questions, since he has less time to assimilate the material and to respond.

9. When vital information is presented, try to make sure the deaf student isn't left out. Write on the chalkboard any changes in class time, examination dates, special assignments, additional instructions, etc. In lab or studio situation, allow extra time when pointing out the location of materials, referring to manuals, texts, etc., since the deaf student must look, then return his attention to further instruction.

10. In the absence of an interpreter, questions or statements from the back of the room should be repeated. Deaf students are cut off from whatever happens that is not in their visual area. Since it is often necessary to know the question in order to fully understand the answer, questions or statements from the back of the room should be repeated.

PROGRAM PLANNING AND EVALUATION FOR BLIND AND VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS

Jack Hazekamp, Editor

PREFACE

In the early 1980s, the California legislature mandated the state's Department of Education to develop guidelines for programs serving deaf-blind, hearing impaired, severely orthopedically impaired, and visually impaired students. Jack Hazekamp, a consultant with the state's Special Education Division, was responsible for the development of the guidelines for services to visually impaired students, which were published as Program Guidelines for Visually Impaired Individuals. The talents and expertise of professionals and parents throughout the state were called upon in this effort, and the assistance of others from national blindness organizations was also requested. Kathleen Mary Huebner, then National Consultant in Education for the American Foundation for the Blind (AFB) was privileged to provide some input and was impressed by the scope of the guidelines, the thoroughness of the representation of the unique needs of blind and visually impaired students, and the clarity of presentation, all of which would ultimately lead to the guidelines' widespread use by special education personnel, regular education teachers, administrators, support personnel, and parents within California.

It is a formidable task to put into one document comprehensive guidelines for programs serving blind and visually impaired students, considering the multitude of elements involved in identification, assessment, program planning, implementation and evaluation, and appropriate and effective instruction on the elementary and secondary levels. Yet it was evident that the California effort met the challenge. Some states have developed guidelines, others are in the process of doing so, and still others have no such guidelines in written format to assist practicing administrators and teachers, new teachers to the state, and parents whose children are receiving educational services in a particular state.

AFB recognized the distinctive quality of the guidelines developed in California. Some of the characteristics, or particular strengths, of the guidelines that influenced AFB to adapt them for national use in the present volume were their readability and their appropriateness for teachers of visually impaired students, special education teachers, classroom teachers, special subject teachers, parents, support staff, rehabilitation counselors and teachers, transcribers, administrators, and anyone else involved in providing educational programs to blind and visually impaired students. California's guidelines were unique because they addressed study skills, affective education, descriptions of personnel that included roles and responsibilities, and a self-review guide that encourages readers to put the guidelines into action. But perhaps most important, the guidelines were child centered. It was obvious that blind and visually impaired students and their needs were kept in the forefront during the development of the guidelines, along with exemplary models of service delivery.

Based as it is on the guidelines developed in California, Program Planning and Evaluation for Blind and Visually Impaired Students: National Guidelines for Educational Excellence is the result of the work of all those initially involved in the development of the California guidelines. It is also the result of the additional direct efforts of Jack Hazekamp, Special Education Consultant, California State Department of Education, and Dr. Kathleen Mary Huebner, Director of National Services in Education, Low Vision, and Orientation & Mobility for AFB, both of whom edited the original manuscript to broaden its application to national standards and reflect federal legislation and regulations; Natalie Hilzen, Managing Editor, AFB; and Mary Ellen Mulholland, Director of Publications and Information Services, AFB.

The role of the teacher of visually impaired students continues to be in transition. The job of this teacher is a demanding one, given the unique knowledge base and familiarity with a variety of service delivery systems that are needed and the heterogeneity of the students served. Teacher preparation programs grapple with decisions about which curriculum components to maintain and which ones to change to provide qualified teachers with the skills and confidence required to practice their profession and prepare students to take their rightful place in society. State certification requirements continue to need to be reviewed, modified, and standardized.

Although in recent years the federal government's education agency has supported a noncategorical approach to teacher training and certification, the program planning framework offered in this publication demonstrates the multiplicity of specialized skills that blind and visually impaired students need to learn and that are unique to them because of their sensory loss or limitation. It also demonstrates the multiplicity of specialized skills needed by teachers who work with these students. Parents, administrators, teachers, and rehabilitation personnel are encouraged to use this book to facilitate the planning and delivery of appropriate educational services and ensure optimal learning opportunities and experiences for blind and visually impaired students. The determination of factors such as type, frequency, and quantity of specialized services required by blind and visually impaired students should be based on thorough, timely assessments of students' needs, rather than on the availability of service delivery models. AFB believes that Program Planning and Evaluation for Blind and Visually Impaired Students will assist those who are involved in the education of blind and visually impaired students in their efforts to ensure an appropriate and effective education for all such students throughout the nation.

Susan Jay Spungin, Ed.D.
Associate Executive Director, Program Services
American Foundation for the Blind

CHAPTER TWO
Unique educational needs related to a visual impairment

The unique needs of blind and visually impaired students outlined here can be used as a general framework for assessing each student with a visual impairment and for planning and providing instruction and services to meet the assessed needs. These processes are described in Chapters Three and Four. In this chapter, students' unique educational needs are presented in relation to the following areas: concept development and academic skills, communication skills, social/emotional skills, sensory/motor skills, orientation and mobility (O & M) skills, daily living skills, and career and vocational skills. The information about educational needs offered in this chapter will provide valuable assistance for the team developing the individualized education program (IEP) and for those who implement the IEP.

CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT AND ACADEMIC NEEDS

A visual impairment will often impede a student's development of visual concepts and learning of academic subjects. Special concept development and academic skills, such as listening and study skills, will therefore often be needed.

Concept development and academic needs that should be addressed include:

- Developing a good sense of body image
- Understanding these concepts: laterality, time, position, direction, size, shape, association, discrimination, sequence, quantity, sensations, emotions, actions, colors (to the best of the individual's visual ability), matching, and classifying
- Developing listening skills appropriate to the level of the student's functioning, including the development of auditory reception, discrimination, memory, sequencing, closure, and association skills
- Developing auditory comprehension and analysis skills appropriate to the level of the student's functioning, such as the development of the ability to summarize; classify; compare; recognize cause and effect; predict outcomes; visualize; understand character; understanding setting; recognize climax, foreshadowing, and purpose; and distinguish fact from opinion
- Becoming familiar with the format of, and knowing how to use, reference materials in the student's primary reading medium
- Being able to interpret accurately maps, charts, graphs, models, and tables
- Developing writing and recording skills for notetaking during lessons
- Developing skills for notetaking from material originally intended for print, for example, from recorded material or material read aloud
- Developing the ability to organize notes and other study materials

- Developing the ability to organize one's time
- Developing the ability to select and use a reader
- Being able to acquire material in the appropriate reading media, such as braille or large type

COMMUNICATION NEEDS

A student with a visual impairment will usually require alternative modes for instruction in reading and writing. He or she will need special skills in using alternative strategies and specialized equipment and materials to communicate effectively.

Communication needs that should be addressed include:

- Being skilled in reading, using appropriate modes (for example, braille or print and recorded form) for such purposes as gaining academic information and pursuing personal, career, and recreational interests
- Developing skill in writing for personal, academic, and career needs, using appropriate modes (braille, print, typewriting, recording, and/or handwriting) for such purposes as notetaking, recording phone numbers and addresses, taking messages, and recording travel directions and personal notes
- Being proficient in typing
- Being able to write one's own signature legibly
- Being able to operate basic communication equipment, such as radios, talking book machines, reel-to-reel tape recorders, cassette recorders, and phonographs
- Being cognizant of and able to use appropriate special devices for reading and writing, such as slates and styli, braillers, prescribed optical devices, closed-circuit television systems, talking computers, reading machines, and other electronic equipment
- Being cognizant of and able to use appropriate special devices for mathematics and science, for example, the abacus, talking calculators, paperless braillers, specialized measuring equipment, and talking computers

SOCIAL/EMOTIONAL NEEDS

A visual impairment often affects a student's self-concept, observation of behavior in social situations, involvement in recreational activities, and sexuality. Blind and visually impaired students will, therefore, have special needs for socialization, affective education, recreation, and sex education. They will also need to learn to deal with the psychological implications of their visual impairments.

Socialization

Socialization needs that should be addressed include:

- Understanding and displaying acceptable social behavior appropriate to a variety of group situations
- Being able to discriminate between behaviors not socially acceptable in public but acceptable in private
- Understanding and exhibiting appropriate assertiveness in a variety of situations
- Being aware of and using appropriate techniques in verbal communication, such as the use of voice volume and intonation
- Being aware of and using appropriate techniques in nonverbal communication, such as the use of gestures, eye contact, and facial expressions
- Being aware of and being able to control body posture, movement, and physical mannerisms in an appropriate, coordinated manner
- Being aware of and using proper manners in eating and in social situations
- Being able to make introductions properly and demonstrate appropriate conversational skills
- Being prepared to contribute constructively to group activities and social situations
- Being aware of appropriate social distances in which to communicate with others
- Being aware of dress codes for specific groups and occasions and dressing appropriately for one's age and situation

Affective education

Affective education needs that should be addressed include:

- Recognizing that each person is unique and different from every other person
- Understanding that visually impaired persons have all the same emotions as everyone else
- Being able to identify one's feelings
- Being able to express one's feelings to others directly and in a socially acceptable manner
- Having feelings of self-worth and well-being

- Recognizing one's own strengths and weaknesses in a realistic manner
- Acknowledging both positive and negative feelings in oneself and in others and understanding that both types of feelings are legitimate
- Being able to identify and appropriately express one's likes and dislikes
- Being able to understand and recognize teasing and sarcasm and developing appropriate ways of handling them
- Being aware of alternative ways to respond to the feelings and behavior of others
- Feeling that one is a valuable, contributing member of society
- Being able to identify and understand a wide range of feelings in oneself and in others, including happiness, guilt, frustration, boredom, confusion, anger, embarrassment, and pride
- Being aware that the way a person feels about himself or herself is reflected in the way he or she treats others
- Being aware that each person must establish his or her own set of values and live by them
- Being aware of the concept of peer pressure and determining the appropriateness of conforming to such pressure
- Being able to identify and share feelings about one's visual impairment in relation to being accepted by one's peers
- Understanding the ways in which people can become victimized by allowing others to make choices for them
- Understanding the long-range results of too much dependence on others
- Being able to feel comfortable asking for or refusing help when it is appropriate
- Understanding the difference between allowing others to help when it is not needed and deciding to ask for help when it is needed
- Being aware of the connection between being in control of one's life and taking responsibility for what happens to oneself in life

Recreation

Recreation needs that should be addressed include:

- Being familiar with a variety of social and recreational activities
- Being able to participate in a variety of recreational activities with a group and on an individual basis

- Realizing that many options are involved in deciding how to spend one's leisure time
- Learning to play indoor and outdoor games appropriately, for example, ball, cards, and roller skating
- Developing hobbies of individual interest, such as arts, crafts, or music
- Being competent in several different recreational activities
- Learning about popular spectator activities in order to enjoy attending them and being able to discuss them appropriately
- Being aware of opportunities for participation in recreational activities in the neighborhood and the community in addition to those designed specifically for visually impaired people, such as neighborhood parks and centers, scouting, school and social clubs, and the Young Men's (or Women's) Christian (or Hebrew) Association
- Being aware of current recreational trends and being able to participate when appropriate, such as in current dance steps or currently popular games

Sex education

Sex education needs that should be addressed include:

- Being able to identify with one's own gender
- Recognizing that each human being is a sexual entity and has certain characteristics associated with gender
- Identifying sexual roles in our society
- Understanding what constitutes a family and the various roles of family members
- Being aware of the stages of the life cycle
- Having knowledge of the reproductive process in a variety of living things
- Being aware of the factors that influence the growth of one's body
- Being aware of the biological and emotional changes that occur in human males and females during puberty
- Understanding that differences occur in the rate of maturity of individuals' bodies
- Being knowledgeable about appropriate grooming and personal hygiene techniques
- Being able verbally and tactilely, with the use of models, to identify the body parts and organs of the reproductive systems of human males and females, using correct terminology

- Being able to use correct terminology to explain how sexual intercourse and human fertilization occur

- Being aware of the changes in the human body during pregnancy and the developmental process of the growth of the fetus

- Being aware of the birth process and possible complications in the process

- Being knowledgeable about the factors that should be considered during pregnancy to increase the chances of delivering a healthy baby

- Being knowledgeable, through contacts with real infants and children, about appropriate child care procedures and adaptations that may be necessary for a visually impaired parent

- Being knowledgeable about available options in family planning

- Being aware of the common types of venereal diseases, their symptoms and consequences, and preventive measures and treatments

- Being aware of appropriate dating and social mores to be used with the opposite sex, such as flirting or asking someone for a date or to dance

- Being aware of the various types of interpersonal relationships one can have with members of the opposite sex

- Being aware of verbal and nonverbal communications that relay sexual messages to others, for example, the use of body language

- Being knowledgeable about strategies for the prevention of sexual and physical abuse, including inappropriate touching and verbal advances, and rape

- Understanding that there are individuals with different types of sexual preferences

- Being knowledgeable about the genetic factors related to some visual impairments that one might consider before having children, and being aware of genetic counseling

- Being aware of the responsibilities associated with premarital sexual relations, marriage, and parenthood

- Being able to express and discuss concerns related to one's visual impairment and relations with the opposite sex, such as feelings about dependency, not being able to drive, financial concerns, and genetic factors

Psychological implications

How well a student understands and accepts his or her visual impairment can be determined by addressing the needs in this area, including:

- Being able to recognize that one has a visual impairment
- Being knowledgeable about one's own eye condition
- Being able to explain one's eye condition to others
- Understanding how vision works
- Understanding and accepting any physical limitations caused by one's visual impairment
- Understanding how low vision devices can help improve visual abilities and accepting the use of appropriate low vision devices
- Accepting the use of alternative techniques and apparatuses for obtaining sensory information where appropriate, for example, the use of braille, tapes, and the long cane
- Being knowledgeable about the elements of personal eye care, including medications, hygiene, regular eye exams, and low vision assessments
- Having realistic knowledge of current research and treatment as they relate to one's visual impairment

SENSORY/MOTOR NEEDS

A visual impairment may affect a student's gross and fine motor skills, alternative sensory discrimination and sensory integration skills, and abilities to develop appropriate posture, balance, strength, and movement. Blind and visually impaired students may need to develop special skills in these areas.

Sensory/motor needs that should be addressed include:

- Learning to control the head, limbs, and body for purposeful exploration and movement
- Learning to sit, crawl, stand, and walk independently
- Learning to control the head and body while sitting, crawling, standing, and walking, exhibiting appropriate gait, stride, and mannerisms
- Developing the ability to balance while standing still and while in motion
- Using gross motor skills, such as those used in crawling, walking, exploring objects, negotiating stairs, negotiating depth changes, opening and closing doors, and pushing and pulling objects

- Developing fine motor skills, such as those used in grasping and releasing objects, turning door handles, grasping a cane, and dialing a phone

- Developing sufficient muscle relaxation and flexibility to perform basic daily living and mobility skills safely, efficiently, and gracefully

- Developing sufficient strength, stamina, and endurance to complete tasks involved in routine mobility, physical education, and daily living skills

- Learning to identify, discriminate, and use various textures and objects tactilely, with the feet and other appropriate parts of the body

- Learning to identify, select, discriminate, track, and use continuous and intermittent auditory sources of information indoors and outdoors, including direct, indirect, and reflected sound sources

- Learning to identify, discriminate, and use various kinesthetic and proprioceptive sources of information indoors and outdoors, such as changes in temperature, movement of air currents, or height of slopes and depth changes

- Learning to identify, discriminate, and use various olfactory sources of information indoors and outdoors

ORIENTATION AND MOBILITY NEEDS

A visual impairment usually affects how a student learns about and functions within various environments. Visually impaired students, therefore, will need special skills to understand and become oriented to environments and to move, travel, and play independently and safely within them. O&M needs that should be addressed include:

- Developing a conceptual understanding of body image as well as comprehension of concrete environmental concepts, spatial concepts, compass directions, and concepts relating to traffic and traffic control. Body image involves such concepts as planes, parts, laterality, and directionality in relation to objects and environmental features. Concrete environmental concepts relate to such items as grass, lawn, cement, wood, carpet, tile, tree, bush, street, curb, and intersection. Examples of spatial concepts include far, near, close, high, low, above, below, facing, in front of, behind, beside, away from, next to, forward, backward, sideways, and 90, 180, and 360 degree turns. Compass directions relate to such concepts as relationships involving north, south, east, and west; sides of streets; names of corners; and relationships among changes in direction. Traffic and traffic control concepts include fast, slow, parallel, perpendicular, same direction, opposite direction, near side, far side, stop signs, walk signs, and light-controlled intersections.

- Learning to crawl, stand, and walk independently

- Learning to identify, discriminate, and track increasingly complex auditory, tactile, kinesthetic, or olfactory clues

- Learning to travel independently at home
- Learning to control the head and body to exhibit comfortable and appropriate gaits and strides
- Learning to control the head and body to exhibit appropriate physical mannerisms while standing still, moving, and sitting
- Learning appropriate trailing and protective techniques for locating objects to facilitate independent O&M at home and school
- Learning to use appropriate sighted guide skills in all travel situations when needed, such as traveling in normal situations; going through narrow passages; being on ascending or descending stairways, on escalators, on elevators, and outdoors; switching sides; seating oneself in chairs, on sofas, and at tables; and establishing and maintaining control of the sighted guide situation with familiar and unfamiliar guides
- Learning to use vision as well as distance low vision devices, as appropriate, to the maximum extent possible for independent, safe O&M
- Learning to travel independently at various school settings throughout one's school career
- Learning to use the long cane appropriately to supplement or replace visual travel skills (skills to be acquired are basic grasp and hand and arm position; touch technique; use of the cane at closed doorways, with stairs, in congested areas, and in social situations; trailing techniques; and modified touch technique for snow travel and locations of drop-offs like curbs or down staircases)
- Developing a level of maturity sufficient for understanding the importance, dangers, responsibilities, and appropriate behavior of independent travel in increasingly sophisticated settings
- Learning to become oriented and to travel independently in urban, suburban, and rural areas (examples of skills in this area are traveling along a residential sidewalk); traveling past driveways and walkways; locating curbs and wheelchair ramps; recovering from veering; crossing residential streets; recognizing and recovering from a change in direction in street crossings; using tactile, auditory, kinesthetic, or olfactory environmental cues, compass directions, maps, and spatial relationships for orientation and safe mobility in familiar urban, suburban, and rural areas; and becoming oriented independently to an unfamiliar area)
- Developing an understanding of the services various business establishments provide, for example, grocery stores, department stores, post offices, shopping malls, and banks
- If nonverbal, developing a feasible communication system for acquiring information and communicating needs
- Learning to use adaptive mobility aids, if necessary, such as wheelchairs, walkers, braces, and orthopedic canes, to provide for the maximum amount of independent mobility possible

- Being able to develop and travel alternate routes and, if necessary, specific routes in limited areas to care for basic needs as independently as possible

- Learning the skills necessary to become oriented and to travel independently in small and major metropolitan business areas:

  - Using traffic sounds to establish, maintain, or regain orientation and line of travel

  - Traveling safely and appropriately on busy sidewalks in business areas

  - Crossing independently intersections of four lanes or more controlled by traffic lights

  - Exhibiting appropriate verbal and physical public behaviors

  - Developing the ability to seek out and interact appropriately with the public to obtain assistance in orientation or mobility as needed

  - Learning to use community address systems as an aid to orientation

  - Carrying identification and emergency funds when traveling

  - Knowing whom to contact in case of emergency or disorientation

  - Knowing how to locate and use a pay telephone (dial or push-button)

  - Learning to locate independently various destinations in business areas

  - Learning to travel safely in various retail and service establishments, including independent travel on escalators and elevators

  - Learning to carry out increasingly complex personal business transactions independently

  - Understanding and being able to use public transit systems

  - Learning to acquire information regarding products, services, and location of various stores and businesses by using the telephone, including recording this information for later referral

  - Being able to recognize and safely travel past areas of road construction

  - Being able to negotiate railroad track crossings independently

  - Being able to travel independently within business areas at a level sufficient to carry out tasks necessary for basic survival

DAILY LIVING SKILLS NEEDS

A visual impairment affects a student's ability to live independently, and visually impaired students will often need to learn special techniques to function as independently as possible. Assessment and instruction regarding daily living skills should include the following areas:

Personal hygiene skills

- Perform basic personal hygiene needs, such as tending to toileting, care of teeth and hair, and bathing needs
- Using personal service businesses to care for one's own needs and making necessary appointments, such as with a barber or beauty shop (these activities are for students who are beyond the basic skill level)

Dressing skills

- Dressing and undressing, including tying shoes and fastening buttons and zippers
- Selecting appropriate clothing and planning purchases of clothing

Clothing care skills

- Using techniques for storing clothing and identifying colors and patterns and for sorting laundry and using a washer and dryer
- Using services such as shoe repair, performing minor repairs on clothing, and hemming and ironing clothing

Housekeeping skills

- Locating and using housekeeping areas in the home, such as the kitchen, dining area, and bedroom, and assisting in basic upkeep by doing such tasks as putting out trash and setting the table
- Performing many basic housekeeping tasks, such as vacuuming and scheduling regular maintenance
- Being able to make basic home repairs

Food preparation skills

- Identifying kitchen appliances and performing basic techniques of pouring, stirring, measuring, and spreading
- Using kitchen equipment, such as a stove, preparing menus, following recipes, and preparing meals

Eating skills

- Locating food on the table
- Using utensils properly; being familiar with passing food to others or conveying it to oneself, serving oneself at buffets, and using cafeterias; ordering food from restaurant menus; and understanding tipping

Money management skills

- Identifying and knowing coin equivalents
- Handling money in public, planning a budget, using checking and savings accounts, and having one's own system for money management

Social communication skills

- Conducting basic social interactions, including communicating one's needs
- Conversing appropriately with familiar persons and strangers

Skills in telephone usage

- Identifying one's own telephone number and placing an emergency call
- Using directory assistance and various types of telephones for personal and business calls, arranging for one's own telephone service, and displaying good telephone etiquette

Written communication skills

- Understanding that written communication is used to convey information and ideas
- Writing a signature and personal and business letters, using a system for recording information, and ordering basic office supplies correctly

Time monitoring skills

- Responding to and being able to follow a daily schedule and knowing events that occur during the daytime versus the evening
- Knowing how to tell time and use clocks and watches, understanding the passage of time and such concepts as weeks and months, scheduling one's own time, and keeping appointments

Organization skills

- Organizing time and activities systematically
- Arranging and organizing personal belongings

CAREER AND VOCATIONAL NEEDS

Visually impaired students will often need guidance in selecting an appropriate career. Assessment and instruction in career awareness and special vocational education skills, including adaptive skills, will often be required by an individual for success in a chosen career.

Career and vocational needs that should be addressed include:

- Understanding oneself in terms of the characteristics and attributes that contribute to one's individuality and recognizing one's uniqueness as a person with a visual impairment
- Understanding that a variety of lifestyles is acceptable
- Knowing the difference between work and play and when each is appropriate
- Relating present experiences to future jobs
- Being familiar with jobs held by one's family members and the jobs available in the school and community, including jobs held by visually impaired persons
- Being able to fill out a job application or give the necessary information to another person
- Being familiar with the development and use of a resume
- Knowing basic skills and factors relating to employability, including getting to work on time
- Knowing that money is a medium of exchange and related to work and developing concepts of financial management
- Developing competencies in decision making
- Knowing and using personal information skills, including how to write a legal signature
- Understanding the importance of doing a job to the best of one's ability, of becoming employed to increase one's self-esteem, and of interacting appropriately with supervisors
- Maximizing one's capabilities in manual skills, including the use of basic tools, with the goal of using the hands to explore and control the environment
- Participating in hands-on work experiences through chores, through paid jobs on or off campus or after school (particularly in the private sector), or in simulated work environments

- Participating in skills training at an entry-level job in a variety of experiences to help determine realistic occupational choices
- Being able to serve as one's own advocate in obtaining necessary services, adaptations, and equipment needed for success on a job, during job training, or in college

(For additional information on the areas discussed in this chapter, see the "Selected Reading List.")

CHAPTER THREE
Identifying and assessing unique educational needs

To be eligible for special education and related services in a particular state, a student must meet the state's specific requirements. These requirements can be obtained from the local education agency or special education division of the state's Department of Education. In P.L. 94-142 regulations, the federal government defines a visual impairment as one that "even with correction, adversely affects a child's educational performance." Many states use a modification of the federal definition, which is applied in a variety of ways. In California, for example, students who have visual impairments and who, after a comprehensive assessment, are found to have educational needs that cannot be met without special education and related services are to be provided with instruction and specialized services, materials, and equipment in accordance with an individualized education program (IEP). (See Appendix G.)

In general, for educational purposes, the term "visually impaired" includes the following:

- Functionally blind students (who rely basically on senses other than vision as their major channels for learning)

- Low vision students (who use vision as a major channel for learning)

A visual impairment does not include visual perceptual or visual motor dysfunction resulting solely from a learning disability.

The standards that appear in this chapter refer to the identification of visually impaired students and the assessment of their unique educational needs. The standards are worded as statements of the characteristics that programs should have and are designated in italics throughout.

IDENTIFICATION OF VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS

STANDARD: A program has procedures for locating and referring students with visual impairments who may require special education, including possible referrals from vision screening programs.

Identifying a student's visual problems at an early age is critical. Local procedures to find these students should include search activities, such as the following, to locate and refer individuals suspected of having a visual impairment:

- Coordination with local vision screening programs

- Organization of activities to make staff members and parents aware of signs that may indicate a student has a visual impairment

- Coordination with eye specialists and other possible referral sources. (See Appendix A for sources of referral information and Appendix D for assessment information.)

ASSESSMENT OF VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS

STANDARD: The assessment of a student with a suspected visual impairment involves, where appropriate, the areas related to the student's disability. (These areas are specified below.)

To identify all the unique educational needs of a student resulting from his or her visual impairment, those assessing the student must be sure that the initial comprehensive and ongoing assessments address, where appropriate, the areas that are outlined in Chapter Two. (See Appendix G for legal requirements and Appendix D for information that will be helpful in assessing a student's vision/low vision.) Various aspects of the assessment of visually impaired students are described in the discussion that follows.

Reports on Vision

Assessment of a student should begin with the report of an examination by an ophthalmologist or optometrist. It is important that as much information as possible be acquired from the eye specialist and that parents and/or the teacher of visually impaired students who may accompany the child during the eye specialist's examination communicate effectively with the specialist. The specialist's findings may be reported in the "Eye Report for Children with Visual Problems" form produced by the National Society to Prevent Blindness or in other educationally oriented vision reports. Sample copies can be found in Appendix D.

The eye report should indicate the following:

- Near and distant acuity, with and without best possible correction
- Field of vision, including peripheral field
- The etiology and prognosis of the visual impairment
- The eye specialist's recommendations for school personnel and parents, including an indication of when the student should be reexamined.

Cooperation among parents, teachers, and eye specialist is critical during eye examinations of severely multiply impaired students, whose vision may be difficult for an eye specialist to assess because of problems in obtaining accurate communication between the child and the specialist. Further information for assessment can be obtained from the student's pediatrician or from other attending medical staff. Information can also be obtained through electrodiagnostic testing (for example, visually evoked response testing) and functional vision assessments.

A state-accepted eye report is also used as the basis for registering visually impaired students annually with the state. This registration provides for the use of materials, devices, and equipment produced by the American Printing House for the Blind. (See Appendix B.)

Low vision

For a visually impaired student with low vision, it is strongly recommended that a low vision assessment be provided in accordance with the guidelines that follow. In the first step, a functional vision assessment is conducted by a teacher of visually impaired students in coordination with the orientation and mobility (O&M) specialist and the student's parents to determine the student's functional vision. (Appendix D contains more detailed information and a sample report form.) Parents can provide valuable information on how the student uses his or her vision.

The purposes of the functional vision assessment are to accomplish these ends:

- Determine what the visually impaired student sees functionally in a variety of settings and situations
- Indicate modifications required for visual efficiency, such as task modifications, including time requirements; specialized instructional materials and equipment; and desired seating, lighting, and physical arrangements
- Facilitate further assessment by an eye specialist, when necessary
- Complement the needed interdisciplinary exchange of information between educators and eye specialists.

In the second step, recommendations from the functional vision assessment report are made to the assessment team or IEP team regarding the possible need for further assessment by a licensed optometrist or ophthalmologist who has training and expertise in low vision, has appropriate low vision devices and assessment equipment available, and provides follow-through. Referral to a low vision clinic and resulting findings and recommendations may be useful.

When the assessment of a student with low vision is to be discussed, the assessment team or IEP team, or both, should include the individuals who conducted the functional vision assessment. When a recommendation is made for further low vision assessment, the assessment team or IEP team, or both, should include an individual knowledgeable about prescriptive low vision devices and additional low vision assessment. The information from the low vision assessment will be extremely useful in determining the needs of the student in other areas related to the visual impairment.

Concept development and academic skills

Although assessment and instruction in academic subjects are the major responsibilities of the classroom teacher, visually impaired students should be thoroughly assessed by a teacher of visually impaired children (vision teacher), in coordination with the classroom teacher, in academic areas such as mathematics, reading, and language arts (particularly spelling). Such assessments will not only provide valuable information about the level on which a student is performing academically but will also provide the teacher of visually impaired students with an opportunity to observe how the student functions visually or tactilely in regard to academic tasks. When assessment indicates that a student's errors are the result of unique educational needs related to his or her visual impairment, intervention by the teacher is necessary.

Vision is the major channel through which sighted students perceive their environment and the relationship of themselves and objects within it. Functionally blind and low vision students, therefore, often require appropriate instruction in concept development to progress from understanding concrete and functional levels of information to comprehending abstract levels of instruction. Assessment should, therefore, include the student's understanding of these basic concepts:

- Spatial concepts
- Temporal concepts
- Quantitative concepts
- Positional concepts
- Directional concepts
- Sequential concepts

Because visually impaired students must rely on their auditory sense for learning to a greater degree than their sighted peers do, an assessment of the student's listening skills should also be conducted, including the student's auditory perception, comprehension, and skills of analysis. Study skills should also be assessed, such as the following:

- Using reference books and materials
- Interpreting maps, charts, graphs, and models
- Taking notes from both written materials and oral presentations
- Keeping one's place
- Tracking
- Comprehending the "whole," based on observations of the "parts"

Communication skills

Good communication skills are essential for a student's successful integration into the school and later into society. The assessment of a visually impaired student's communication skills should begin with an evaluation of the reading (braille, large print, print, or aural) and writing (braille, print, cursive, or aural) modes being used by the student. The teacher of visually impaired children, with suggestions from the student when possible, should determine whether these modes are the most appropriate for the student at that particular time or whether other (or additional) ones should be introduced.

Once the student's reading and writing modes have been determined, the efficiency and accuracy with which the student performs in them should be assessed to determine whether further instruction is necessary to improve his or her technique, speed, or accuracy. In addition, skills in the following areas should be assessed where appropriate:

- Typing
- Signature and cursive writing
- Familiarity with basic communication equipment, such as Talking Book machines, tape recorders, reading machines, and radios
- Computers and computer adaptations
- Optical aids
- Closed-circuit television systems
- Braille/slate and stylus and brailler
- Abacus
- Talking calculator
- Other equipment specially designed or modified for visually impaired students

Social/emotional skills

The assessment of the social and emotional skills of a visually impaired student encompasses the areas of socialization skills, affective education, recreation, human sexuality, and the psychological implications of the student's visual impairment. Various formal and informal methods of assessment exist with which the teacher of visually impaired students is familiar, and these are used to assess skill levels in each of these areas. The development of positive social and emotional skills is essential for the student's ability to function independently at home, at school, and as an adult and to be effective in employment and interpersonal relationships.

Sensory/motor skills

The development of sensory/motor skills is essential if the student is to benefit from instruction in O&M, daily living skills, prevocational and vocational skills, and physical education. Various formal and informal assessment methods exist with which the teacher of visually impaired students and the O&M specialist are familiar.

Orientation and mobility skills

The development of O&M skills is essential if the visually impaired student is to travel independently in various community settings. The needs of visually impaired students in this area are unique because vision loss requires them to learn and travel about their environment in a way different from that of sighted students. Assessments should address how the visual impairment affects the student in regard to the following areas of functioning:

- Understanding of the physical environment and space
- Orientation to different school and community environments
- Ability to travel in school and around the community
- Ease of finding opportunities for unrestricted, independent movement and play

Daily living skills

If a visually impaired student is to function independently at home and at school and as an adult, development of daily living skills is essential. An individual's ability to become independent will vary. The needs of each student must be assessed and instruction provided so that he or she has the opportunity to learn as many independent living as possible.

The assessment of daily living skills often requires a careful task analysis of the skill being evaluated because prerequisite learning may not have occurred. In addition, a student's level of ability in the assessed skill should be precisely specified in terms of the level of assistance the student needs to complete the skill.

Career and vocational skills

Employment should be viewed as an important goal for each visually impaired student. The development of concepts in this area begins in early childhood, and assessment and training must begin early and progress through four sequential stages: awareness, exploration, preparation, and participation.

Assessing and addressing a student's needs in all of the other areas related to his or her disability are important, because these needs relate directly to the student's ability to make a successful transition from school to the world of work. Assessments of the student's needs for career and vocational education programs should include consideration of his or her prevocational skills (including work habits, attitudes, and motivation), vocational interests, and vocational skills. Assessment of needs and the training required to meet these needs will be aimed at developing the skills necessary for a range of employment possibilities.

ASSESSMENT PERSONNEL

STANDARD: The assessment of visually impaired students is conducted by personnel who are knowledgeable about the disability.

To be knowledgeable about the disability of visual impairment, the persons conducting the assessment of visually impaired students must have the following:

- The necessary training and materials to assess the cognitive, affective, social, and motor abilities of visually impaired students

- A familiarity with tests designed and those adapted for visually impaired individuals
- An awareness of the availability of large-print and braille assessment materials

Communication among persons who will assess the visually impaired student, including comments from the teacher of visually impaired students and recommendations from the parent and student, should precede the assessment so that the most effective method of nondiscriminatory testing can be established. Throughout the assessment, the teacher should be involved in identifying areas that should be addressed. These include but are not limited to the following factors:

- Use of nondiscriminatory assessment instruments, as required by state and federal law
- Need for additional testing time by the student
- Visual performance of the student
- Low vision devices, if needed
- Previous assessments
- Lighting requirements
- Print and picture size appropriate for the student
- Best positioning of materials
- Other assessment strategies
- Motivation of the student
- Other special needs, for example, those of bilingual students

Assessments must be administered by qualified individuals so that the desired data and educationally relevant information are obtained. Assessment instruments that require specific technical skills for their administration, such as intelligence (IQ) tests, should be undertaken by qualified psychologists. Teachers can use many formal and informal assessment tools and administer, score, and interpret these instruments. The teacher of visually impaired students should be a valuable resource person. When formal assessment tools are administered, it is important that the manual of directions be understood and carefully followed. It is often helpful to other professionals, such as school psychologists and physical or speech therapists, if the teacher is available or works cooperatively in the preparation of the visually impaired student for testing, in the actual administration of the assessment, and in the interpretation of assessment results.

ASSESSMENT REPORT

STANDARD: The assessment report identifies the student's unique educational needs related to the visual impairment, including needs for specialized equipment and materials.

The unique educational needs of each visually impaired student that have been identified in the assessment, including needs for materials and equipment, should be included in an assessment report. Assessment reports can be helpful in the coordination of all the assessments conducted by the multidisciplinary team. The unique educational needs, as well as the strengths identified in the reports, will provide valuable information, which should be used to develop or review a student's IEP.

VARIABLES AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

STANDARD: The persons assessing visually impaired students consider the variables that influence individual needs.
(A listing of these variables follows.)

When assessing the unique educational needs of each student and providing instruction and services, staff must consider the variables that influence individual needs. These include but are not limited to variables related to visually impaired students who fall into these categories:

- Have a congenital or adventitious visual impairment
- Have multiple impairments
- Are infants or preschool children
- Are at the elementary or secondary level
- Have varying degrees of visual impairment
- Are functionally blind or have low vision
- Have other special needs

Congenital or adventitious visual impairment

The terms congenital and adventitious refer to the time of onset of a visual impairment. A congenitally visually impaired student has had a visual impairment since birth or early infancy and generally has difficulty with concepts and skills that are visual in nature. An adventitiously visually impaired student has a visual impairment that was acquired after visual memory was established and has some visual concepts and skills. This student may need to integrate visual concepts and concepts learned through other sensory input and may have needs relating to his or her adjustment to the visual impairment.

Students with multiple impairments

The unique educational needs of visually impaired students with one or more additional impairments are diverse and complex. Personnel who work with students with complex needs resulting from multiple impairments should:

- Use a multidisciplinary team approach in assessing and providing instruction and services to meet students' needs
- Coordinate assessment, as well as instruction and services, through ongoing communication among all other personnel serving the students, to ensure that all needs are met

In using the team approach to assessment and instruction, it is important to include specialists with expertise in all the student's disabilities. (See Appendix E and Appendix F.)

Infants and preschool children

Visually impaired infants and preschool children have distinctive educational needs. Until these individuals have developed complex mental processing abilities, a difficult task without vision, they are surrounded by sounds, smells, and sensory perceptions that have little or no meaning to them.

Opportunities for learning, such as opportunities to make associations among sounds, shapes, and objects and their purposes, a process that often occurs incidentally with sighted children, must be directly provided. Because research shows that the first five years of a child's life are the most important for developing a foundation for learning, special emphasis must be given to the infant and preschool child whose opportunities to learn through visual observation are limited or nonexistent.

Assessment should include but not be limited to these areas:

- Potential for delays in development and learning because of limited experiential opportunities in specific areas. These include sensory/motor development, communication skills development, cognitive development, daily living skills development, and social/emotional development, including the development of self-concept and self-esteem.
- Acceptance of the family as the primary provider of experiential and learning activities
- Opportunities for family members to learn from qualified personnel the way in which they can assist the child's learning
- Provision for the integration of concepts and the ability to generalize
- Provision, through early and appropriate introduction to educational processes, for a smooth transition from preschool services to elementary school services.

In general, the guidelines described for school-age children also apply to infants and preschool children. (See Appendix G and Appendix H for legal requirements in this area.)

Elementary and secondary school students

Elementary and secondary school students who are visually impaired require a special curriculum to address their unique educational needs (identified in Chapter Two) so that they may have equal access to the district (or local education agency), or core, curriculum. These students' needs can be met in specific ways to accomplish this goal.

Elementary school students. Students in an elementary school program may have needs in areas described in the previous section, "Infants and Preschool Children," particularly if they have developmental delays or have not received needed instruction and services as infants or at the preschool level. Elementary school students should be provided intensive instruction in the basic skills that they need to function independently in the regular classroom. Often, these students should be placed in a resource room for visually impaired students, especially in the primary grades, to receive such instruction. (See Chapter Five for a discussion of placement in the least restrictive environment.)

Elementary school students should receive instruction and services that will prepare them for secondary school. Developing career education and prevocational skills, addressing prescribed courses of study, and meeting state and local standards should be areas of concern. These students also need instruction in accepting responsibility for their educational needs.

Secondary school students. Students in a secondary school program should be encouraged to become increasingly responsible for their educational needs, including obtaining necessary adapted classroom materials and equipment and selecting and using readers. These students should receive instruction and services that focus on skills enabling them to function independently as adults, particularly career-related and vocational education skills.

Secondary school students should, to the extent possible, meet the requirements of the prescribed course of study and state and local standards for graduation. When appropriate, as determined by the IEP team, these students should use alternative means (such as more time) or modes (such as large type or braille) to meet standards.

The nature of the visual impairment

A student's unique educational needs will be influenced by the cause or type of vision loss as well as by the student's age at the onset of the visual impairment. The following two points should be noted about visual impairments in general:

- Students' visual impairments range from mild, moderate, or severe impairment to functional blindness. (See Appendix D for a discussion of visual impairments.)
- The visual status of an individual student may be stable, fluctuating, slowly or rapidly deteriorating, or subject to improvement.

Functionally blind and low vision students

Functionally blind students will have needs related to the use of their other senses as primary channels for learning. Braille reading and writing are particularly important. Students should not rely solely on their minimal vision when it is not efficient or effective for reading or writing.

Low vision students will have needs related to the use of their vision as a primary channel for learning. Information derived from a low vision assessment will be particularly useful in identifying and meeting those needs. (See Appendix D for information on low vision assessments.)

Students with other special needs

Some students will have other special needs that should be considered during assessment. Examples of students with other special needs are those who are bilingual or limited in their English proficiency, gifted, educationally disadvantaged, or at risk because of specialized health care needs; living in threatened home environments; or members of migrant families. Those conducting assessments of students with other special needs must work closely with staff from programs and agencies providing services to meet these needs. For example, when a visually impaired student whose primary language is not English is being assessed, materials in the appropriate language and medium should be obtained and prepared, and a translator should be provided when the teacher or the O&M specialist does not speak the child's primary language.

CHAPTER FOUR
Planning and providing instruction and services

Planning and coordination are crucial factors in the provision of instruction and services. The standards that appear in this chapter relate to assessment of unique needs as the foundation for educational activities, the roles and responsibilities of key individuals in meeting these needs, and the coordination of instruction and services to meet these needs. The standards are designated in italics throughout.

UNIQUE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

STANDARD: The assessed unique educational needs of visually impaired students form the foundation for these important activities:

- Developing the individualized education program (IEP), which includes when appropriate, specialized services and materials and equipment (See Appendix G for legal requirements.)

- Providing appropriate instruction, services, materials, and equipment

- Developing curriculum and implementation strategies to meet these needs

Concept development and academic needs

For most visually impaired students, it is expected that information in core curriculum areas will be obtained as a part of instruction in the classroom. The classroom teacher, the visually impaired student, and the teacher of visually impaired students should all work closely together to ensure that concepts that may be unfamiliar (for example, contractions of words in reading braille, mathematics, and columns) or visual demonstrations (for example, science experiments and examples on the chalkboard) do not slow the integrated student's progress and ability to keep up with the rest of the class. If the visually impaired student also has a learning handicap, the resources of a specialist in that area should be used so that the student may perform to the maximum level of his or her ability. Three areas in which visually impaired students may require specialized instruction are concept development, listening skills, and study skills.

Concept development. The development of concepts in sighted children is based almost entirely on their visual observations of the world. This process involves the identification of objects, the relationship of children to objects in their environment, and their conceptualization of the relationships among objects. Unless these relationships are specifically taught, they cannot be totally understood by students whose visual perceptions are distorted. A comprehensive, sequential program of concept development is necessary for most visually impaired children before they can be expected to develop abstract thinking skills.

Listening skills. Individuals who are functionally blind or have low vision do not automatically develop better listening skills; these must be systematically taught and practiced. The development of good listening skills does not stop with work in auditory perception but extends to auditory comprehension, analysis, and memory skills. In particular, good listening skills will be needed by the student to interpret the environment when the student works in the regular classroom, when books and other materials are read to the student (by a reader or on tape), or when the older student tries to retain the maximum amount of information from lectures.

Study skills. The study techniques used by visually impaired students are so different from those used by sighted students that study skills should be taught by a specialized teacher of visually impaired children. The various formats used in reference works, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and atlases, coupled with the complexity of tracking and keeping one's place in these books, demand that special attention be given to the development of specific skills.

Reading and interpreting maps, charts, and graphs also require special techniques, whether the material is in braille or large print or is being read using an optical device. Also, visually impaired students need to develop methods of taking notes while listening or reading and to organize notes and other materials in media that they can use. In addition, they should develop the skills needed to acquire and use a reader.

Communication instruction

Without communication skills, individuals cannot be fully independent and must therefore rely on others to assist them at home, at school, at work, and in society. For the visually impaired individual, dealing with information in a written form is particularly difficult. Unique problems arise both in the reception of printed material (reading) and in the written transmission of one's thoughts and opinions (writing). Many visually impaired students will need special instruction in one or both of these areas to develop proficiency in communication.

Reading techniques are not acquired for sighted and visually impaired individuals in the same manner. Depending on the visual functioning of the student, special instruction in reading techniques for braille, large print, or regular print may be necessary. For written communication, depending on the student's visual functioning, use of a braillewriter, slate and stylus, pen and pencil, typewriter, and/or electronic equipment should be taught.

Social/emotional instruction

The social and emotional needs of visually impaired students are unique because of the effects that a lack or loss of vision may have on the formation of one's self-concept, opportunities for appropriate modeling in social situations, involvement in recreational activities, development of concepts about human sexuality, and understanding and awareness of one's visual impairment. Needed skills and understanding in these areas should be addressed to help visually impaired students develop the appropriate social and emotional skills necessary to function independently at home and in school as adults in vocational, interpersonal, and family relationships.

Socialization. Visually impaired students often have needs in regard to the development of appropriate social skills. The majority of a sighted person's social skills are learned from visual modeling. That is, an appropriate behavior or mannerism is observed and then is copied in a similar situation. Many acceptable social behaviors go unnoticed by visually impaired students unless they are taught these behaviors and an explanation of when and why one would behave in this way.

Visually impaired students have other needs regarding socialization because the area of nonverbal communication is often inaccessible to them. Nonverbal ways of communicating are frequently critical avenues of social interaction for sighted people and must be directly addressed if visually impaired students are to incorporate them into their repertoire of social skills.

Affective education. The emotional needs of visually impaired students must be addressed through affective education so that these needs do not interfere with students' academic, social, and career or vocational growth. A crucial emotional developmental task for visually impaired students is the formation of a self-concept. Research has shown that visually impaired children and adolescents do not have as accurate a self-concept as their sighted peers.

Visually impaired infants and young children often have difficulties in recognizing themselves as individuals apart from other individuals and objects in the environment, because vision plays such a crucial role in this differentiation process. The lack of feedback from a mirror, which assists sighted students in learning how they appear to others, further hinders the development of a healthy self-concept in visually impaired students.

As visually impaired students become older, they may perceive themselves as devalued or incapable persons because of their inability to perform many of the common tasks required in school or on the playground. Another common occurrence is the visually impaired student's overemphasis of certain strengths, which may result in an unrealistic self-concept that can later be deflated in adolescence or adulthood. Visually impaired students also often encounter teasing by peers and must learn to handle such situations constructively while maintaining a good self-concept. In addition, many emotional issues arise when the visually impaired student reaches adolescence. Among these issues are dealing with learned helplessness, dependency, overprotective families, and sexuality.

Recreation. Students with visual impairments are often limited in the range of recreational and leisure-time activities, including extracurricular activities, that are available to them. These students should be exposed to a variety of available options, which they may not be aware of or about which they may not feel competent.

The sighted person becomes aware of many recreational activities through visual sources not available to the person with a visual impairment. Many specific leisure skills are learned from visual modeling, which visually impaired students may not be able to do. In addition, visually impaired students may be limited because of a lack of mobility skills, and they cannot always independently explore neighborhood options. For these reasons, both individual and group recreational activities must be included in efforts to help students develop recreational skills, including skills in art and music.

Human sexuality. Visually impaired students need a much more intensive and conceptually oriented sex education program than their sighted peers do. Often, they lack conceptual understanding and accurate information because they cannot gain them through the visual media available to sighted students. Many times visually impaired students can verbalize sexual concepts and information accurately, but further inquiry reveals that they have many misconceptions.

The use of anatomically correct tactile models is an important part of the sex education programs for visually impaired students because visual media are not useful to them in the learning process. Dealing with the attitudes and emotions surrounding these students' sexuality at various stages of growth is important. The confusion that often exists regarding the stigmas attached to the disability and sexuality of visually impaired individuals can seriously affect the self-concepts of students.

Existing local sex education programs should be adapted for visually impaired students so that gender identity, reproduction processes, sexual and social issues, and health and safety precautions are dealt with--all in relation to each student's visual impairment and moral code. Before sex education is provided, both the IEP and local policies and procedures should be followed.

Psychological implications of the visual impairment. Many of the psychological problems faced by visually impaired students stem from a lack of understanding and acceptance of their eye condition. Many students cannot discuss their eye problem when others inquire about it. Visually impaired students are often uncomfortable discussing their vision problems, since such a discussion forces them to acknowledge that they do, in fact, have a visual impairment. These students need to understand and embrace fully their visual impairment as part of their identity so that a healthy adjustment results and they are able to deal with the stereotypes and prejudice often encountered in our society. If students are knowledgeable and comfortable about and accepting of their visual impairment, their chances of creating a similar comfortable and accepting attitude in others will increase.

Sensory/motor instruction

From an early age, sighted children are able to use vision, imitation, and opportunities for unrestricted exploration, movement, and play to develop necessary fundamental skills in the following areas: gross and fine motor coordination, relaxation of muscles, strength, endurance, flexibility, and balance. Sighted children also are better able to develop their tactile, auditory, proprioceptive, and kinesthetic sense discrimination and integration. The lack of visual, imitative, and normal play opportunities may hinder the ability of visually impaired students to develop these fundamental skills through the natural process of development and maturation or as a result of regular physical education activities.

Instruction in development or remediation of identified needs in the area of sensory/motor skills should be provided, as needed, by a team of instructional personnel that may include the classroom teacher, special class teacher, teacher of visually impaired children, physical education teacher, adapted physical education specialist, orientation and mobility (O&M) specialist, occupational therapist, and physical therapist. Sensory/motor development needs overlap with several other areas of need. In some cases, certain skills and abilities are prerequisite to the development of more sophisticated skills in other areas, particularly O&M, daily living skills, and career and vocational education.

Orientation and mobility instruction

The ability to understand, interact with, and move within one's physical and spatial environment is a fundamental developmental skill. This ability is one of the milestones indicative of maturation for sighted students and should be so viewed for visually impaired students as well.

A visual impairment may affect an individual's opportunities for unrestricted, independent exploration, movement, and play; understanding of the physical environment and space; ability to become oriented to and to travel in various community environments; and ability to acquire basic daily living and social skills necessary for interaction with sighted individuals and for travel within the school and the community. A visual impairment may also result in voluntary or imposed restrictions on a person's activity that are imposed simply because of the presence of a visual impairment and associated misconceptions about the ability of students to develop independent movement capabilities.

Specific instruction and services will be necessary to meet students' assessed needs in the following areas:

- Environmental and spatial concept development, body image, control, and purposeful movement
- Orientation techniques
- Adaptive visual or nonvisual mobility techniques
- Use of residual vision for travel or orientation
- Daily living skills related to community travel and independence.

For reasons of safety and liability, persons providing O&M instruction must be qualified. For example, instruction in the use of the long cane and off-campus instruction should be provided only by a qualified O&M specialist.

Instruction in daily living skills

Specific instruction in daily living skills will often be necessary if visually impaired students are to function independently at home, at school, and later as adults. Sighted children learn these daily living skills from their parents beginning at a very early age. Parents of visually impaired students are often unaware of the students' ability to acquire these skills or are reluctant to teach them because they usually have not had any training in the use of adaptive techniques.

For sighted children, the acquisition of daily living skills, for example, eating and dressing independently or doing household chores, is seen as a developmental milestone. Often, visually impaired students are not expected to be independent in this area, which results in their performing daily living skills at a level far below the level of skills expected from sighted students. Working closely with parents and other caretakers as early as possible is important so that they can assist in teaching these skills and following through at home. One of the most effective ways of teaching daily living skills is through involvement of the parents by providing instruction, as appropriate, in the student's home.

For sighted children, many skills of daily living are learned incidentally or reinforced through visual modeling. Depending on the level of visual functioning of a visually impaired student, he or she should be taught these skills through the use of specialized or adapted skills and equipment.

Teaching students to make simple adaptations so that they will be able to function independently in a variety of settings and situations is important. Planning, instruction, and curriculum should focus on self-help needs of increasing complexity within each of these areas of daily living skills: personal hygiene, dressing, clothing care, housekeeping, food preparation, eating, money management, social communication, telephone use, written communication, time, and organization.

Career and vocational instruction

Career and vocational education is an essential component in programs for visually impaired students. Even though new technology and legislation that prohibits discrimination have provided more opportunities for employment, visually impaired individuals will continue to encounter many barriers in realizing their employment potential. Career and vocational education should therefore begin early and continue through four phases: awareness, exploration, preparation, and participation.

Awareness. Awareness begins during early childhood and includes the development of a person's self-esteem and self-concept and the beginning of an understanding of how people live, work, and play. Activities at this level should begin to assist students to develop a realistic self-appraisal of their skills, abilities, attitudes, and strengths, as well as their limiting factors. Instruction should also help students gain the skills, abilities, and attitudes they need to become successfully employed. Awareness also includes an introduction to the world of work and occupations, in which those positions that are held, or could be held, by visually impaired individuals are emphasized.

Exploration. Exploration should begin when students have developed a realistic awareness of their abilities and limitations as well as their interests. The consideration of employment that might appear to require vision should not automatically be eliminated. Instead, students should be encouraged to explore ways, including the use of technology, in which the occupational tasks involved could be adapted for a visually impaired person. Rehabilitation counselors from state and private rehabilitation agencies and other individuals knowledgeable about employment opportunities and adaptations for visually impaired people need to be involved.

Preparation. Preparation should include vocational training in the specific skills, abilities, and attitudes necessary for the individual's success in his or her field of interest or choice. A student should become a client of the state rehabilitation agency no later than the tenth or eleventh grade or after reaching a comparable chronological age.

Participation. Participation can include on-the-job training for a specific career or work experiences that will provide opportunities for students to develop the skills, abilities, and attitudes that will be valuable in any career choice. Cooperation with local vocational education programs is essential, including sheltered workshops, supported work programs, regional occupational programs and centers, and local businesses. Knowledge of individual rights and affirmative action policies, current law, and the skills of self-advocacy should also be included in a career and vocational education program.

Career-related areas of learning and achievement are lifelong activities for everyone. Because visually impaired students are unable to learn about them through visual observation, as sighted students do, the training of students with visual impairments to meet their career and vocational needs should receive special emphasis.

Materials and equipment

To provide instruction and services to meet the assessed needs already described, a program must supply, as indicated by students' IEPs, materials and equipment, ranging from braille and large type to recordings, tactile diagrams, and electronic devices. If a student's IEP so indicates, certain materials and equipment must be provided.

Those responsible for providing materials and equipment for students should follow these guidelines:

- Functionally blind students will need tactile or auditory adaptations, or both, in the form of braille, recorded materials, and technological devices in order to function optimally within a classroom.

- Low vision students will often be able to use regular or large type as their primary reading medium, even though the use of adaptations such as low vision devices (for example, magnifiers or closed-circuit television) may be necessary. Recorded materials, technological devices, and braille may also be needed.

- Multiply impaired students with visual impairments will need to use a wide variety of materials and equipment, depending on the combination and severity of their impairments. For multiply impaired students who need a specialized curriculum, the standard adaptations (braille, typewriter, large type, and so forth) may be used as modes for learning. Students may need additional time to master the operation of equipment and the use of materials.

- Nonacademic students, infants, and preschool children will need to use concrete objects, picture representations, auditory and tactile materials, and so forth to enhance sensory stimulation, concept development, and readiness skills. (See Appendix B for information on sources of funding and materials and equipment.)

ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF KEY INDIVIDUALS

STANDARD: The key individuals who are involved in the identification and assessment of needs, the planning or provision of instruction and services, or consultation to visually impaired students understand the students' unique educational needs and possess the skills and abilities to carry out their roles and responsibilities in meeting those needs.

The skills, abilities, and knowledge of the individuals involved in the assessment or provision of instruction, services, or consultation to visually impaired students should be examined. Each IEP specifies the special education instruction and services, including specialized services, materials, and equipment, needed by a visually impaired student. (See Appendix G for legal requirements.) The degree of coordination that can be achieved among all the individuals involved in implementing the IEP, and the knowledge and skills of these individuals, will play a vital role in the success of the total program in meeting all the needs of the student. Therefore, each person who provides instruction and services to visually impaired students must understand his or her roles and responsibilities, including ethical responsibilities. (See Appendix F.) The remainder of this chapter lists these individuals and outlines the functions they perform.

Teacher of visually impaired students

The teacher of visually impaired students has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Has primary responsibility for specialized instruction and services required to meet the unique educational needs of the visually impaired student

- Possesses the skills and abilities necessary to provide and coordinate this specialized instruction

- Assists the student, parents, special and regular education personnel, and the student's sighted peers in (1) understanding the unique educational needs and learning characteristics of visually impaired students, (2) becoming aware of services and support available from local programs for visually impaired students, (3) acquiring information regarding local, state, and national resources for the education of visually impaired students, and (4) interpreting the visually impaired student's specific eye condition, the educational implications of the visual impairment, and the results of functional vision assessments

- Confers regularly with the classroom teacher, other regular and special education personnel, parents, and others to coordinate programs and services for the visually impaired student

- Assists the site administrator and teachers in making environmental adjustments for the student in the school and in the improvement of practices and procedures

- Shares responsibility with classroom teachers in the identification of instructional areas in which the student requires assistance

- Has responsibility for selecting and obtaining large-type or braille textbooks, supplementary materials, educational aids, and equipment needed by the visually impaired student and the classroom teacher to ensure the student's maximum participation in all classroom activities (appropriate educational materials may be prepared or adapted by the teacher of visually impaired students, or they may be obtained from educational, clerical, or transcriber services)

- Provides specialized instruction to the visually impaired student, school personnel, and parents in the use of necessary educational aids and equipment

- Provides instruction to the visually impaired student in the development and maintenance of skills designed to meet the student's unique educational needs in these areas, as indicated in the IEP: (1) low vision and visual efficiency skills in coordination with the eye specialist, (2) concept development and academic skills in coordination with the classroom teacher and other staff, (3) communication skills in coordination with the regular teacher and the language, speech, and hearing specialist (these skills include braille reading and writing as appropriate), (4) social/emotional skills and abilities in coordination with counselors, psychologists, and classroom teachers, (5) sensory/motor skills in coordination with the physical education instructor, occupational and physical therapist, and O&M specialist, (6) daily living skills in coordination with the O&M specialist, classroom teacher, and parent, and (7) career and vocational education skills in coordination with career and vocational education staff and rehabilitation counselors

- Provides assistance to the classroom teacher in academic subjects and activities of the classroom that, as a direct result of the student's visual impairment, require adaptation or reinforcement for the student

- Provides assistance in any assessment

- Conducts the functional low vision assessment in coordination with the O&M specialist

- Attends IEP meetings for students with visual impairments

- Shares responsibility for initial and ongoing assessments, program planning, and scheduling with parents, the student when appropriate, the classroom teacher, principal, counselor, and other school personnel

- Schedules adequate time for assessment, instruction, planning, preparation of materials, travel, and conferences with relevant school and other key individuals (scheduling should be flexible to meet the varying needs of each student)

- Maintains ongoing contact with parents to assist them in the development of a realistic understanding of their child's abilities, progress, and future goals

- Provides in-service training programs for all school personnel and students and education for parents regarding the needs of visually impaired students and adaptations, programs, and services for these students

- Is aware of pamphlets, films, and other public information materials that may be useful in developing realistic and unprejudiced attitudes toward visually impaired students

- Assists in the coordination of other personnel, such as transcribers, readers, counselors, O&M specialists, career/vocational education staff, and rehabilitation counselors

- Maintains a reference library of current professional materials

- Acquires information about current research, development, and technology.

In a self-contained classroom or school for visually impaired children, the teacher of visually impaired students may be responsible for instruction in all subjects in addition to undertaking most of the previously listed responsibilities. (See Appendix E for further discussion of the role of this teacher.)

Classroom teacher

The classroom teacher (regular, special class, or resource specialist) has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Provides instruction to the visually impaired student in the classroom

- Works cooperatively with the teacher of visually impaired students to (1) identify the visually impaired student's area of educational need, including unique educational needs, (2) coordinate instruction and services to meet these needs, (3) provide, in a timely manner, the teacher of visually impaired students with classroom materials that need to be reproduced in another medium, (4) determine mutually convenient times during the school day for scheduling the teacher of visually impaired students to work with the student, (5) modify classroom procedures and environment to meet the specific needs of the visually impaired student for participation in classroom activities, and (6) exchange information concerning the visually impaired student with parents and other individuals on a regular basis.

Orientation and mobility specialist

The O&M specialist has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Instructs the visually impaired student in the development of skills and knowledge that enables him or her to travel independently to the highest degree possible, based on assessed needs and the student's IEP

- Teaches the visually impaired student to travel with proficiency, safety, and confidence in familiar and unfamiliar environments

- Provides consultation and support services to parents, regular and special education teachers, other school personnel, and sighted peers

- Confers regularly with parents, classroom teachers, physical education teachers, and/or other special education personnel to assist in home and classroom environmental modifications, adaptations, and considerations and to ensure reinforcement of appropriate O&M skills that will encourage the visually impaired student to travel independently in these settings

- Works with the teacher of visually impaired students to conduct the functional vision assessment as it relates to independent travel

- Conducts assessments that focus on long-term and short-term needs of the student

- Includes in the assessment report the needs and strengths of the student and an estimate of the length and frequency of service necessary to meet identified needs

- Prepares sequential and meaningful instruction geared to the student's assessed needs, IEP goals and objectives, functioning level, and motivational level

- Prepares and uses equipment and materials, for example, tactile maps, models, distance low vision devices, and long canes, for the development of O&M skills

- Transports the student to various community locations, as necessary, to provide meaningful instruction in realistic learning environments

- Is responsible for the student's safety at all times and in all teaching environments while fostering maximum independence

- Evaluates the student's progress on an ongoing basis

- Keeps progress notes on each student

- Participates in necessary parents' conferences and meetings

- Provides in-service training to regular and special education personnel, sighted peers, and parents concerning the O&M needs of the visually impaired student and appropriate methods and procedures for interacting with the visually impaired person that will foster maximum independence and safety

- Provides O&M instruction, where appropriate, in a number of specific areas. These are:

    - Body imagery
    - Laterality
    - Environmental concepts
    - Gross and fine motor skills related to independent travel
    - Sensory awareness, stimulation, and training
    - Spatial concepts
    - Compass direction concepts
    - Sighted guide procedures
    - Basic protective and information-gathering techniques
    - Orientation skills
    - Map skills
    - Cane skills
    - Use of residual vision
    - Low vision devices related to travel skills
    - Urban, suburban, and rural travel
    - Travel in business districts
    - Procedures for crossing streets, including how to deal with traffic control signals
    - Use of public transportation systems
    - Procedures for use of the telephone for information-gathering and for emergencies
    - Procedures for interacting with the public
    - Knowledge and application of community address systems

- Procedures for travel and independent functioning in places of public accommodation
- Skills of daily living
- Sensory/motor skills in coordination with the physical or occupational therapist and teacher of visually impaired students

Parent, guardian, or conservator

The parent, guardian, or conservator has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is fully informed as to why an assessment is being conducted and how it is to be conducted

- Provides information relating to the assessment, including medical information

- Gives informed written consent before an individual assessment is conducted and receives a copy of the assessment report when he or she requests it

- Is knowledgeable about the assessment results prior to the IEP meeting in order to participate more effectively in the meeting

- Participates as a member of the IEP team by stating observations about the needs and interests of and expectations and goals for the child, cooperating with school and other personnel to determine IEP goals and objectives for the child, and accepting responsibility for assisting in the implementation of IEP goals and objectives

- Participates in ensuring that an appropriate educational program is planned and implemented to meet the individual needs of the child and maintains communication with school personnel to accomplish this goal, including providing feedback and suggestions about the instruction and services being provided

- Provides, in cooperation with school personnel, an appropriate educational program in the home to improve the student's daily living skills, career and vocational skills, O&M skills, and other developmental skills as a supplement to special instruction and services to meet the child's unique educational needs

- Provides ideas for and participates in formal and informal parent education programs designed to assist parents in understanding and meeting the needs of visually impaired children

- Has information and assistance from school personnel and other sources to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to participate in meeting the unique educational needs of the child. (See Appendix A for various sources of information and Appendix E for discussion of parent/educator efforts.)

Visually impaired student

The visually impaired student has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is involved, unless it is clearly not appropriate, in all decisions about his or her education
- Is encouraged to provide information about his or her unique educational needs, strengths, and expectations as part of assessment
- Participates, when appropriate, in the development of the IEP
- Gives feedback and suggestions about the instruction and services being provided
- Has high expectations and works toward achieving them to become as independent as possible.

Eye specialist

The eye specialist, a licensed ophthalmologist or optometrist, makes vision-related recommendations to the classroom teacher, teacher of visually impaired students, O&M specialist, and other professional staff. Some ophthalmologists and optometrists specialize in low vision impairments and have the necessary equipment and expertise to assess low vision and prescribe low vision devices.

Regular or adapted physical education specialist

The regular or adapted physical education specialist has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is knowledgeable about unique educational needs in the area of sensory/motor skills
- Works closely with the teacher of visually impaired students, the O&M specialist, and the occupational or physical therapist to share needed information and coordinate services that may be provided by these individuals
- Is familiar with specialized or adapted equipment for visually impaired students in the area of physical education
- Involves students in appropriate physical education activities that can be applied in daily life.

Occupational or physical therapist

The occupational or physical therapist has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is aware of unique educational needs of visually impaired individuals, particularly in the area of sensory/motor skills
- Works closely with the teacher of visually impaired students, the O&M specialist, and physical education staff to coordinate services.

School nurse

The school nurse has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Acts as a liaison with health professionals, educators of visually impaired children, other school personnel, and parents
- Coordinates screening of vision and hearing, including making referrals and screening the hearing of visually impaired students
- Provides assistance in determining the need for additional health assessments, for example, physical examinations or referrals to other agencies
- Cooperates with the teacher of visually impaired children in teaching visually impaired students about specialized health care needs, such as how to insert eyedrops and how to care for, insert, and remove prosthetic eyes.

Program specialist

The program specialist has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Has in-depth knowledge of visually impaired students' unique educational needs and experience in providing education for these students
- Provides technical assistance and in-service training to all personnel working with visually impaired students and their parents
- Is knowledgeable about local, state, and national resources for visually impaired persons
- Is especially knowledgeable about program options and services available locally or regionally.

Specialist in career and vocational education

The specialist in career and vocational education has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is aware of unique educational needs in career and vocational education and other related areas and appropriate career and vocational assessment tools
- Consults and works cooperatively with the teacher of visually impaired students, the O&M specialist, and parents in determining realistic goals and instruction in these and related areas
- Is knowledgeable about the expanding career and vocational education opportunities currently available to visually impaired individuals, including the use of technological devices
- Coordinates efforts with the rehabilitation counselor or counselor/teacher in the local office of the state rehabilitation agency.

Language, speech, and hearing specialist

The language, speech, and hearing specialist has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is aware of the visually impaired student's functional vision and unique educational needs in the areas of communication (particularly language development), concept development and academic skills, and sensory/motor skills
- Works closely with the teacher of visually impaired students to coordinate instruction and services.

Counselor, psychologist, or social worker

The counselor, psychologist, or social worker has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is aware of the unique educational needs of the visually impaired student or the student's family
- Works closely with the teacher of visually impaired students to coordinate services
- Is knowledgeable about special considerations for visually impaired students when conducting assessments. (See Appendix G for legal requirements.)

Transcriber (certified braille specialist/recorder)

The transcriber (certified braille specialist/recorder) has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Holds Library of Congress certification for preparing materials in braille
- Adheres to standards of the Braille Authority of North America when preparing braille materials in literary braille, mathematics, music, foreign languages, or computer notation
- Is knowledgeable about embossing tools, techniques, and media and understands the concepts to be presented when preparing tactile materials
- Adheres to the transcribing standards and procedures for large type of the National Braille Association and qualifies as a typist according to the standards of the local educational agency when preparing materials in large type
- Has the necessary competencies to prepare aural media, including knowledge of recording equipment, the ability to comprehend and present materials at an appropriate pace, and a well-modulated voice.

Reader

The reader has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Possesses the skills necessary to read print materials to visually impaired students, including knowledge in the use of recording equipment; good articulation and pronunciation and a pleasant voice; ability to follow the directions of the teacher and student; and ability to meet deadlines
- When the reader is a student or volunteer, works under the supervision of the teacher of visually impaired students.

Aide

The aide has the following roles and responsibilities:

- As directed by the teacher of visually impaired students or other credentialed staff, assists in (1) facilitating the organization of the classroom and other environments, (2) reinforcing the individualized instruction provided by the teacher to achieve IEP goals and objectives, and (3) planning and preparation of materials
- Is familiar with the unique needs of students in the class.

Ancillary staff in residential programs

The roles and responsibilities of staff members will vary, depending on the agency in which they work:

- Dormitory and other residential care personnel, including staff in state hospitals/intermediate care facilities, are responsible for the health, safety, and well-being of students when they are not in school. Since these staff members engage in activities with students similar to those normally provided by parents, these personnel should be aware of the unique needs of students and coordinate their efforts with those of instructional staff, particularly in the area of daily living skills, so that consistency in expected behavior occurs.
- Food service staff members are responsible for planning, preparing, and serving meals to students. Diets should be monitored so that they meet the special needs of students. Food service staff should coordinate their activities with those of instructional staff, when appropriate, in reinforcing students' eating skills.
- Health services staff members are responsible for the health and medical needs of students and should communicate with appropriate personnel regarding the changing health and medical needs of students, particularly concerning medications and special health care needs.

COORDINATION OF INSTRUCTION AND SERVICES

STANDARD: Coordination exists among all the individuals involved in providing instruction and services to visually impaired students.

To be effective, all instruction and services should be coordinated to focus on the visually impaired student. Meetings concerning the IEP and the educational program itself should form the foundation for the coordination of instruction and services.

It is important, however, that all key individuals who are involved develop formal and informal ways of communicating with one another on an ongoing basis to ensure that the IEP is implemented in a coordinated manner. Since many key individuals are often involved in the education of visually impaired students, one staff member should be assigned to facilitate this coordination among all parties, including the parent. In most cases, the teacher of visually impaired students will have this responsibility when the visual impairment is the student's primary disability. (See also Appendix E for discussion of the role of the state education consultant.)

CHAPTER FIVE
Organizing and supporting instruction and services

Organizing and supporting teaching efforts and other related services involve attention to a large variety of elements. The standards that appear in this chapter relate to such important factors as regionalization, least restrictive environment, class sizes and caseloads, and staff development and parent education. The standards are designated in italics throughout.

REGIONALIZATION

STANDARD: A program provides for the delivery of appropriate instruction and services through a full range of options established, as necessary, on a regional basis.

The concept of regionalization is particularly important for programs serving visually impaired students because these students constitute a low-incidence or low-prevalence group that is small in size and spans a wide range of ages. New programs for visually impaired students should be planned and existing programs modified so that instruction and services necessary to meet these students' varied and unique educational needs, including the provision of essential materials and equipment, can be delivered through coordinated administrative services on a regional basis.

To provide needed instruction and services in an efficient and cost-effective manner, staff members from the special education arm of the local education agency (LEA) may find it necessary to cooperate with adjacent local education agencies and states, particularly in rural areas. Collaborative efforts could include districts, counties, intermediate units, and other regional special education agencies as defined by the state's annual program plan, which is submitted to the federal government as required by P.L. 94-142. Local or regional plans are also required by some states. (A state's Department of Education can be contacted for information on the given model used in the state; see Appendix C for addresses.) Other options include contracting with private agencies for services, teleconferencing, and using staff members who are dually certified teachers.

Because of the importance of coordination in these efforts, it is essential that roles and responsibilities be examined for staff of regional special education agencies and for key administrative personnel as well. Each state's annual program plan outlines the roles and responsibilities for the specific regional special education model used within the state as well as local education agencies. Regardless of the model used, responsibility for provision of and consultation to special education programs and support services for visually impaired students must be clearly defined, including, when necessary, provisions for coordinating efforts with other agencies and states. The roles and responsibilities of the supervisor of personnel serving visually impaired students and the site administrator or designee, two key persons, are outlined in the sections that follow.

Supervisor of personnel serving visually impaired students

The supervisor of personnel serving visually impaired students has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is knowledgeable about the unique educational needs of visually impaired students and the roles and responsibilities of the personnel being supervised so that he or she may assist in improving the instruction and services being provided to meet these needs

- Is knowledgeable about the other areas outlined in this chapter, as well as funding sources (see Appendix B) and legal requirements (see Appendix G), so that he or she can be responsive and supportive of improving instruction and services based on the changing needs of students, staff, and parents.

Site administrator or designee

The site administrator or designee has the following roles and responsibilities:

- Is knowledgeable about the needs of visually impaired students and the roles and responsibilities of the regular teacher, the teacher of visually impaired students, and other staff working with these students

- Assists in the coordination of all instruction and services in the school, including regular course of study and special services (such as bilingual education and special education) and the implementation of alternative instructional strategies and proficiency standards

- Assists in promoting and supporting the appropriate placement of visually impaired students in the least restrictive environment by facilitating the school's acceptance of the students, special staff, and the parents of the students as part of the school. (This acceptance can be supported through coordinated staff in-service training and parent education and the provision of information to all students in the school about visual impairments through classroom activities, cross-age tutoring, and student assemblies.)

- Provides facilities that are appropriate to meeting the unique needs of visually impaired students, as outlined later in this chapter.

PLACEMENT IN THE LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT

STANDARD: Each visually impaired student is appropriately placed in the least restrictive environment on the basis of his or her educational needs.

When making decisions about placements, the individualized education plan (IEP) team should (1) focus on the assessed educational needs and strengths of each visually impaired student, (2) determine a placement in which these needs can appropriately be met, and (3) change the placement as the needs of the student change.

The least restrictive environment as defined in P.L. 94-142 may vary for each student with the intensity of the student's needs, but specialized services that attend to the unique needs resulting from the student's visual impairment should also be provided. Students with needs that require intensive specialized instruction and services should be placed where these can be provided. Placing a student in an integrated setting where he or she does not have the skills or the necessary services to achieve and adapt in this setting can actually be more restrictive to the student. However, visually impaired students who have the necessary skills and services should be placed with nondisabled students to the maximum extent appropriate. But placement in an integrated setting does not mean the student is automatically integrated into the environment. It is important to prepare him or her for integration. Sighted peers and staff should also be prepared so that they have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to assist them in accepting the student without prejudice.

Often, an ideal placement where all a student's needs can be met at once does not exist. In such cases, the IEP team should look at the student's entire educational career, including possible future program options that can be expected to meet these needs better.

It is frequently appropriate to group visually impaired students who have additional disabilities with other students with similar needs, but specialized services that attend to the unique needs resulting from the student's visual impairment should also be provided. Students with a visual impairment as their sole or major disability should be grouped with nondisabled peers so that they can learn appropriate academic and behavioral models and appropriate levels of expectation for achievement.

In making the important placement decision, the IEP team should be creative, particularly in rural areas, in deciding on the option that will best meet the needs of each visually impaired student. Included in this process would be exploring regional programs, adapting existing programs, and investigating services provided by public and private agencies.

Program options

The following discussion outlines the recommended minimum options in a range of specialized services and programs available to visually impaired students. The various options are listed according to the intensity of instruction and services provided by the teacher of visually impaired students, from least intensive to most intensive.

The models described are identified by nationally accepted terminology rather than by funding terminology, because programs may be funded in a variety of ways, depending on local needs. Appendix B provides information about funding sources for the program options described.

Itinerant teacher. In the itinerant teacher model, students are enrolled in a regular classroom in the school they would attend if they were not visually impaired. Instruction is provided by a teacher of visually impaired children who visits students in their schools according to their needs for specialized services and also provides consultant services to staff and parents. (For additional discussion of the roles and responsibilities of this teacher, see Chapter Four.) If students have multiple disabilities and require specialized instruction to meet their unique educational needs, they are enrolled in various types of educational placements or special education classes. For children below school age, the itinerant teacher will provide intervention strategies by visiting the home or preschool setting.

Resource room. In the resource room model, students are placed in a special classroom for visually impaired youngsters who have more intensive needs that, ordinarily, require daily support services and specialized instruction provided by a teacher of visually impaired children. Students are integrated into regular and special education classrooms from the resource room for varying amounts of the school day based on their individual needs, as determined by the teacher of visually impaired children and the classroom teachers.

Self-contained classroom. In the self-contained classroom model, students are enrolled in a classroom for visually impaired students and ordinarily require specialized instruction for all or most of the school day. Instruction that emphasizes both subject matter skills and the development of special skills is provided by a teacher of visually impaired students in coordination with other appropriate staff. Students may profit by participating in regular classes in selected academic subjects or nonacademic areas as appropriate.

Special school. Students may also be enrolled in a special school that exclusively serves visually impaired students, including those with additional disabilities or unique needs. These students have the most intensive needs that require specialized instruction and support services beyond those that can reasonably or generally be provided in local school programs. Special school programs may be offered on a day or residential basis. These programs include the following:

- A special school in a local educational agency
- Residential schools for blind students (see Appendix E for a discussion of the role of residential schools)
- State hospital, developmental center, and intermediate care facility programs for visually impaired students (state Departments of Education listed in Appendix C can provide specific listings and relevant legal requirements)

Students enrolled in special school programs should have access to programs in local schools so that they are provided opportunities for integration as appropriate.

Nonpublic schools and agencies. A nonpublic school may be an educational option when a student's needs cannot be met by a public agency. Services may be provided by nonpublic schools and agencies when such services are not otherwise available, for example, orientation and mobility (O&M) instruction, instruction in daily living skills, and infant and preschool services.

Program options for infants and preschool children

Various options exist at the infant and preschool program level throughout the country. All program options may not be available in each state or community. The following options are cited as examples, not as a complete list:

- Public school programs for infants and preschool disabled children

- Nursery schools that are supported by parents, private organizations, adult education centers, and others
- Public and private home-based programs
- State preschool programs
- Children's centers, migrant child care centers, and campus children's centers
- School-age parenting and infant development programs
- Head Start programs
- Family counseling services, such as those that provide information and assistance to parents regarding their child's cognitive, physical, social, and emotional development; refer children to appropriate educational facilities; and assist infant and preschool teachers in methods of integrating and educating young visually impaired children.

A state's Department of Education can provide the location of programs offering counseling services and educational guidance to visually impaired infants and preschoolers and their families.

Parents should be provided with opportunities to meet with other parents of visually impaired children to exchange ideas and information and also to meet and consult with visually impaired adolescents and adults. Information about programs should be disseminated to parents through agencies and individuals involved in the identification and provision of services for visually impaired children. (See Appendix A for sources of information and Appendix H for information on legislation regarding services for infants and preschool children.)

CLASS SIZES AND CASELOADS

STANDARD: Class sizes and caseloads of staff allow for the provision of specialized instruction and services, based on the educational needs of visually impaired students.

It is essential to establish sizes of classes or caseloads for the teacher of visually impaired students and for the O&M specialist that are appropriate for the provision of instruction and services necessary to meet the unique educational needs of students with visual impairments. States may have legal requirements concerning caseload and class sizes. A state's Department of Education can indicate if requirements exist and, if so, what they are. In states that do not have legal requirements in this area, it is recommended that programs use one or both of the following approaches in determining class sizes and caseloads:

1. Establish and monitor the class size or caseload of the teacher of visually impaired students or O&M specialist on the basis of the time required for providing instruction based on the severity or intensity of students' needs; consulting with the classroom teacher and other staff, including consultation when a student is not receiving direct instruction; consulting with and assisting parents; traveling to carry out necessary responsibilities; securing and preparing needed specialized materials,

media, and equipment; and attending meetings, preparing reports, and recordkeeping. Ongoing communication between the staff member and the responsible supervisor or administrator should be included in this process to ensure that students are receiving appropriate instruction and services in accordance with their IEPs and their changing needs.

2. Establish class sizes and caseloads based on the ages of the students being served and the severity of their needs and the instruction and services needed to meet those needs.

Table 1 shows ranges for class sizes and caseloads that are based on state and national averages for agencies. These ranges can be used as a general guide in establishing caseloads and class sizes on the local level. Local caseloads and class sizes for staff may fall above or below these ranges, according to the time requirements necessary for the teacher of visually impaired students and O&M specialist to complete the tasks just outlined.

Table 1. Average Ranges for Sizes of Classes and Caseloads

Type of program	Class size and caseload ranges
Resource room (one teacher and one aide)	8 to 12 students
Self-contained classroom (one teacher and one aide):	
For infants or preschool-age children	4 to 8 students
For kindergarten through third-grade children	6 to 10 students
For fourth- through twelfth-grade children	8 to 12 students
For children with multiple disabilities	3 to 7 students
Itinerant teacher	8 to 12 students
Orientation and mobility specialist	8 to 12 students
Home-based program for infants or preschool-age children	13 to 17 students

STAFF AND SUPERVISION

STANDARD: A program provides qualified staff who have the skills and abilities to conduct assessments and to deliver instruction and services that meet the educational needs of visually impaired students.

The use of necessary qualified staff is a critical component in providing appropriate assessments, instruction, and services. Programs may use a range of qualified professionals.

Professional staff

Programs for visually impaired students should include the necessary appropriately credentialed or licensed professional staff, including the following (see Appendix G for legal requirements):

- Teachers of visually impaired students, who are certified in this area and possess the skills and abilities necessary to meet the unique educational needs of the students they serve, including state certification and/or certification from the Association for Education and Rehabilitation of the Blind and Visually Impaired (AER). (See Appendix A.)

- O&M specialists who are graduates of accredited college or university programs in this area and possess the skills and abilities necessary to meet the unique O&M needs of the visually impaired students they serve. O&M personnel may be certified by the state and/or AER.

- Assessment personnel, including a psychologist, as appropriate, who are knowledgeable about evaluating the needs and abilities of visually impaired students. (See Chapter Three for additional information regarding assessment personnel.)

- Other professional staff, including, but not limited to, regular and special education teachers; program specialists; language, speech, and hearing specialists; physical and occupational therapists; adapted physical education specialists; school nurses; recreation therapists; social workers; and guidance counselors.

All staff should be knowledgeable about their roles and responsibilities in providing and coordinating needed instruction and services as outlined in Chapter Four. Personnel serving preschool children should have competencies and experience in the areas of education for visually impaired students and early childhood education.

Additional support staff

Each program for visually impaired students should also provide, as needed, transcribers, readers, aides, and other personnel who possess the skills necessary to meet unique educational needs.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND PARENT EDUCATION

STANDARD: Appropriate staff development and parental education are provided, based on a needs assessment that reflects the unique educational needs of visually impaired students.

Staff development based on continuing needs assessments should be provided for all special and regular education personnel. Efforts in this area should reflect the unique educational needs of visually impaired students and the roles and responsibilities of staff in meeting these needs. (See Chapter Four for a discussion of the roles and responsibilities of staff and Appendix G for legal requirements.)

Parent education based on a continuing needs assessment should be provided in every program for visually impaired students. It should emphasize the following two areas:

- Assisting parents in their roles and responsibilities of meeting the special developmental needs of their visually impaired children through ongoing communication (see Chapter Four for a discussion of the roles and responsibilities of parents)
- Providing parents with needed information pertinent to the education of their children, including information regarding the range of educational programs and related agencies and services at local, state, regional, and national levels.

GUIDELINES FOR FACILITIES

STANDARD: Facilities are designed or modified to enhance the provision of instruction and services to meet the unique educational needs of visually impaired students.

Facilities should be provided to meet the unique educational needs of visually impaired students. Resource rooms or self-contained classrooms used for these students should be the standard size of regular classrooms in the school system and should include:

- Appropriate and adjustable lighting that meets or surpasses minimum standards and satisfies the needs of low vision students
- Adequate storage space for special equipment
- A separate area for listening activities
- Furniture and chalkboards (black or green) with nonglare surfaces
- A sufficient number of electrical outlets for specialized equipment
- A location on the site that provides convenient accessibility for all visually impaired students attending regular classes.

The teacher of visually impaired students should provide assistance in designing and modifying facilities to meet the needs of students who will be using them. The following guidelines should be considered:

- Appropriate bathroom facilities should be provided for students with multiple disabilities and students in primary school
- Adequate working space with proper lighting for individual instruction and counseling should be available in each school attended by a visually impaired student and served by an itinerant teacher
- Adequate space should be provided in regular classrooms for the visually impaired student's specialized equipment and materials

- Office space should be available for itinerant teachers and O&M instructors. This space should include adequate storage areas, telephones, an answering service, and clerical assistance.

Adequate working space for transcribers should be provided. Special equipment should be available as needed for the production and duplication of materials, including large-print typewriters and duplicators, tape recording equipment and duplicators, braillewriters, and braille duplicating equipment.

Programs for visually impaired preschool children should be housed in a school or facility in which the following modifications have been made:

- Other preschool programs are available for nondisabled children to provide integration opportunities for visually impaired children

- Bathroom facilities have been designed or adapted for young children

- Playground facilities are adjacent to the classroom and include space for appropriate toys and equipment

In addition, students with visual impairments, like all other students, should receive instruction and practice in responding appropriately and calmly to emergencies by participating in fire, tornado, and earthquake drills, bus evacuation drills, and other emergency procedures. The specialized health care needs of these students, such as those with high-risk medical conditions involving the possible onset of diabetic shock or seizure disorders, must be taken into account when emergency procedures are planned. Local codes and ordinances regarding such procedures should be followed.

Staff should be prepared to handle emergencies and should have a knowledge of the specific procedures to follow. The teacher of visually impaired students or the O&M specialist should provide assistance to students and staff regarding evacuation routes and procedures. The school nurse should assist with procedures to follow for medical emergencies.

MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

STANDARD: Materials and equipment necessary to meet the unique educational needs of visually impaired students are provided, as indicated by the students' IEPs.

Materials and equipment must be provided as indicated in the IEP of each visually impaired student to meet the unique educational needs of the student. (See Appendix G for legal requirements.) Sufficient time must also be allocated for the transcriber or teacher of visually impaired students to locate, prepare, and disseminate materials and equipment for each student.

Because expensive materials and equipment are often not available from other sources, funds at the local level must be budgeted to ensure that necessary books, materials, and equipment are provided, coordinated, and maintained. Specialized books, materials, and equipment indicated in the IEPs of visually impaired students must be provided.

Materials and equipment purchased with federal or state funds by local educational agencies may remain the property of the state and be reassigned when they are no longer being used locally. (See Appendix B for sources of funding and Appendix G for legal requirements.) An organized, cost-effective, and coordinated system for acquiring, coordinating, disseminating, and maintaining these special materials and equipment should be operated from central locations within the state, region, or district by specific individuals assigned this responsibility.

TRANSPORTATION

STANDARD: Transportation for visually impaired students is suitable to the unique health and safety needs of these students.

When visually impaired students are transported to special classes or schools, specific arrangements need to be made. They include the following:

- Transportation arranged is appropriate to the health and safety of the students, including consideration of the travel time involved
- Through continuing in-service training by the O&M instructor or teacher of visually impaired students, drivers are made aware of unique O&M needs and measures that may be useful, including emergency, drop-off, and pick-up procedures
- Students are encouraged to travel independently to and from school when they have the necessary O&M skills.

PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT

STANDARD: A program serving visually impaired students has an ongoing process to evaluate its effectiveness and improve the identification and assessment of needs and the planning and provision of instruction and services in meeting the unique educational needs of these students.

Each program serving visually impaired students should have an ongoing process for evaluating its effectiveness in meeting students' needs and using the evaluation results in program improvement. The evaluation process should encompass all the areas outlined in this book, using the standards discussed in each chapter and the "Self-Review Guide" presented in Chapter Six as the basis for the review.

When conducting a self-review, program planners should develop specific questions for interviewing administrators, special and regular education staff, and parents and for reviewing students' records and other documentation. Interview questions should be open-ended and begin with formulations such as "how," "what," "who," and "when," as appropriate. This approach will provide more valuable information for determining and improving the effectiveness of a program than will simple "yes" or "no" questions. The approach can also clarify who is responsible for the elements of the program and yield a local consensus for possible evaluation studies on the local level.

The guidelines outlined in these chapters should be considered when programs serving visually impaired students are monitored by a state Department of Education. The department also should provide technical assistance to parents, teachers, and administrators in the implementation of these guidelines. (See Appendix E for discussion of the role of the state education consultant; other sources of information can be found in the "Selected Reading List.")

APPENDIX A
Resources for technical assistance

A state's Department of Education can provide information on special education programs and answer questions on such matters as identification, assessment, instruction and services, curriculum, public school programs and private schools and agencies, and funding and legal requirements. It can also supply information about rehabilitation agencies and services, orientation and mobility services, teacher preparation programs, certification requirements, state hospitals/developmental centers, low vision services, vocational education, vision screening, and related services for students with special needs. (See Appendix C for state Department of Education listings.)

OTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Information about residential programs, including summer school programs and diagnostic centers, can be obtained from a state's residential school for blind and visually impaired students. The state Department of Education can identify the nearest public or private residential school. Information about materials and equipment, aural media, and transcribers is available through the state's instructional materials center, depository, or clearinghouse. Every state does not have an instructional materials center. The state Department of Education should be able to identify the nearest center for special media and materials provided for blind and visually impaired students. (Appendix B outlines sources of equipment and materials.) Additional information on dog guide schools, other services, and programs in other states is available from the American Foundation for the Blind, whose address and telephone number are listed under "Additional Resources" in this appendix.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

American Foundation for the Blind
15 West 16th Street
New York, NY 10011
(212)620-2000 or (800) 232-5463

The American Foundation for the Blind (AFB) provides direct and technical assistance services to blind and visually impaired persons and their families, professionals, and organizations and agencies. AFB acts as a national clearinghouse for information about blindness and visual impairment and operates a toll-free national hotline. It has a scholarship program and provides catalogs of publications, media, and devices and appliances. The services of national and regional consultants and a variety of publications, including the Directory of Services for Blind and Visually Impaired Persons in the United States, 23rd Edition, are also available from AFB. In addition, AFB operates the following regional centers:

Mid-Atlantic Regional Center
1615 M Street, NW, Suite 250
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 457-1487

Serves Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia.

Midwest Regional Center
20 North Wacker Drive, Suite 1938
Chicago, IL 60606
(312) 269-0095

Serves Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, and Wisconsin.

Northeast Regional Center
15 West 16th Street
New York, NY 10011
(212) 620-2003

Serves Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

Southeast Regional Center
100 Peachtree Street, Suite 680
Atlanta, GA 30303
(404) 525-2303

Serves Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Puerto Rico, South Carolina, Tennessee, and the Virgin Islands.

Southwest Regional Center
260 Treadway Plaza
Exchange Park
Dallas, TX 75235
(214) 352-7222

Serves Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas, and Wyoming.

Western Regional Center
111 Pine Street, Suite 725
San Francisco, CA 94111
(415) 392-4845

Serves Alaska, Arizona, California, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Washington.

Association for Education and Rehabilitation of the Blind and Visually Impaired
206 North Washington Street, Suite 320
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 548-1884

The Association for Education and Rehabilitation of the Blind and Visually Impaired (AER) is a membership organization dedicated to the education and rehabilitation of blind and visually impaired children and adults. The organization and its chapters conduct local, regional, and international meetings and conferences; provide continuing education programs and publications, including newsletters and a journal; and operate a job exchange and reference information service. AER contains several special interest groups in such areas as early childhood, elementary education, and orientation and mobility. The addresses of local chapters can be obtained from AER's national headquarters.

Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-3660

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) publishes a magazine, newsletters, and position papers and hosts national meetings. CEC provides information to teachers, parents, and professionals. It has a Division for the Visually Handicapped.

National Association for Parents of the Visually Impaired
P.O. Box 562
Camden, NY 13316
(315) 245-3442, 245-3444, or (800) 562-6265

The National Association for Parents of the Visually Impaired (NAPVI) holds national and chapter conferences and provides peer support, information, and services to parents and families of visually impaired and multiply impaired students. The addresses of local chapters can be obtained from NAPVI's national headquarters.

American Council of the Blind
1010 Vermont Avenue NW, Suite 1100
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 393-3666

National Federation of the Blind
1800 Johnson Street
Baltimore, MD 21230
(301) 659-9314

The American Council of the Blind (ACB) and the National Federation of the Blind (NFB) are organizations of blind persons and can provide assistance to school staff and parents. Both organizations have parent groups and scholarship programs. ACB provides information and referrals, legal assistance, advocacy support, and a variety of consultative and advisory services. NFB operates a public education program, provides evaluation of existing programs and assistance in establishing new ones, and has a network of state affiliates. The addresses of affiliates can be obtained from NFB's national headquarters.

National Association for Visually Handicapped
22 West 21st Street
New York, NY 10010
(212) 889-3141

National Society to Prevent Blindness
500 East Remington Road
Schaumburg, IL 60173
(312) 843-2020

The National Association for Visually Handicapped (NAVH) and the National Society to Prevent Blindness (NSPB) work to prevent blindness and eye injury through public awareness programs. NAVH provides large-type reading materials, acts as an information clearinghouse and referral center, and sells low vision devices. NSPB conducts a program of public and professional education, research, and industrial and community services and has a network of state affiliates. The addresses can be obtained from NSPB's national headquarters.

American Council on Rural Special Education
National Rural Development Institute
Western Washington University
Miller Hall 359
Bellingham, WA 98225
(206) 676-3576

The American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) specializes in services for exceptional students and their families residing in rural areas. ACRES distributes information, advocates for services, and conducts task forces on rural problems and issues.

Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps
7010 Roosevelt Way, NE
Seattle, WA 98115
(206) 523-8446

The Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps (TASH) advocates for educational services for persons with disabilities. TASH disseminates information, publishes a newsletter and a journal, and acts as an advocate for the rights of disabled persons.

Association for Retarded Citizens
2501 Avenue J
Arlington, TX 76006
(817) 640-0204

The Association for Retarded Citizens (ARC) works on local, state, and national levels to promote services, public understanding, and legislation for mentally retarded persons and their families.

American Association of the Deaf-Blind
c/o 814 Thayer Avenue
Silver Spring, MD 20910
(301) 588-6545

The American Association of the Deaf-Blind (AADB) is a consumer organization of deaf-blind persons. AADB is involved in advocacy activities and holds an annual convention for deaf-blind persons and their families to discuss critical issues regarding deaf-blindness.

Helen Keller National Center for Deaf-Blind Youths and Adults
111 Middle Neck Road
Sands Point, NY 11050
(516) 944-8900

The Helen Keller National Center for Deaf-Blind Youths and Adults provides services and technical assistance to deaf-blind individuals and maintains a network of regional and affiliate agencies. The addresses of affiliates can be obtained from the national headquarters office.

National Coalition for Deaf-Blindness
c/o Perkins School for the Blind
175 North Beacon Street
Watertown, MA 02172
(617) 924-3434

The National Coalition for Deaf-Blindness advocates in behalf of the interests of deaf-blind persons and provides information to consumers and professionals.

National Accreditation Council for Agencies Serving the Blind and Visually Handicapped
232 Madison Avenue, Suite 907
New York, NY 10016
(212) 779-8080

The National Accreditation Council (NAC) for Agencies Serving the Blind and Visually Handicapped is the primary certifying agency of facilities serving visually impaired individuals, including residential schools and low vision clinics. NAC formulates and updates standards for services and publishes them in various media.

National Association of State Directors of Special Education
2021 K Street NW, Suite 315
Washington, DC 20006
(202) 296-1800

The National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDE) provides assistance to state education agencies and offers consultative services. NASDE publishes newsletters and also sponsors conferences.

National Braille Association
1290 University Avenue
Rochester, NY 14607
(716) 473-0900

The National Braille Association is concerned with the production and distribution of braille, large-type, and tape-recorded materials for visually impaired people.

Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services
330 C Street, SW, Room 3132
Washington, DC 20202
(202) 732-1241

The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) has federal oversight responsibility for special education services.

ETHICAL CONSTANTS

Professional accountability

Professionals have an obligation to strive constantly and actively toward excellence in the services they provide to students and their families. It is important that they recognize their strengths, weaknesses, and limitations. They must apply and share these strengths; acknowledge and remediate their weaknesses through continuing education, both formal and informal; and reach out to others who can provide needed services that are beyond their capacity.

Personnel preparation

It is during college and university training that the foundations of knowledge, theory, methodology, and best practice are laid; and it is during the years of actual teaching experience that knowledge is expanded, theory and methodology are implemented, and skills are refined. Personnel preparation programs have a formidable job and an exciting challenge. The population of students is heterogeneous, and the needs of students are ever changing. Today's teachers work with blind and visually impaired youngsters of all ages, with a complexity of additional disabling conditions and a full range of cognitive abilities.

To expect personnel preparation programs to prepare teachers completely to work with students with every possible combination of abilities and disabilities is unreasonable and unrealistic. But teachers can and must be prepared to work effectively as team members, consultants, and team leaders and develop skills to work cooperatively with others involved in the total well-being of students. A solid education foundation can at best be a framework on which teachers must build throughout their careers.

Personnel preparation programs must continuously assess the needs of blind and visually impaired students and their families and be responsive to them by updating and modifying the content of their programs. Professionals who are responsible for pre- and in-service training programs have an ethical responsibility to expand their knowledge and skills. They have an obligation to incorporate valid research findings and to introduce new information, innovative techniques, and model programs into the courses they teach.

Today, personnel preparation programs face a critical problem: the recruitment of potential teachers and orientation and mobility instructors for blind and visually impaired infants, children, and youth. Young people are more interested in pursuing careers in business and industry than they are in human service occupations. Therefore, the country is facing a critical shortage of teachers. The federal government, particularly the Reagan administration, has addressed the need for science and mathematics teachers. It has not addressed the overwhelming need for teachers of exceptional children, especially of blind and visually impaired children. Rather, it has decreased its support for preparation programs for teachers of the blind and for aid to students at the bachelor's, master's, and doctoral levels. The result is not only a decline in the ability of these programs to compete with other programs, but the termination of programs. These facts cannot and should not be ignored. Complacency will lead to fewer appropriate educational services for blind and visually impaired students.

Personnel preparation programs are actively involved in recruitment efforts--a new role for which they are unprepared. Furthermore, as some college and university professors have admitted, the quality of incoming college and university students into teacher preparation programs is lower than it was in the past. Therefore, these programs are being forced to offer remedial course work in an attempt to continue to prepare qualified teachers with the necessary competencies. Until teachers gain the same respect, prestige, and financial remuneration as do other professionals, there will continue to be a severe shortage of teachers. All professionals in the field of blindness have an ethical responsibility to recognize the problem of recruiting and retaining teachers. They should take every opportunity to recruit high-quality teachers and to improve working conditions, benefits, and financial equity. Teacher preparation personnel cannot and should not bear this responsibility alone.

Standards for certification

Professionals who are concerned with competence must address the need for and enforcement of standards. From state to state, the requirements of certification and licensure vary in the area of blindness and visual impairments. Some states have no certification requirements, while others have stringent requirements for academic degrees and field experience that are specific to the disability. All committed professionals have an obligation to ensure not only that high nationwide standards are developed but that the standards are monitored and enforced. Why should a child in one state have a highly qualified and skilled teacher of the visually impaired while a child in a neighboring state has a teacher who had neither the course work nor the experience relevant to the unique needs of visually impaired learners? Can committed professionals continue to be passive when students are instructed by unqualified individuals in skill areas that are unique to their visual impairment?

Responsibilities to students

The ultimate goal and ethical responsibility of professionals who are committed to providing appropriate and high-quality education to blind and visually impaired infants, children, and youth is to facilitate the students' acquisition of the knowledge and skills that will enable them to reach their highest level of independence and to make choices. High yet realistic expectations for the students' educational, emotional, psychological, and social achievements must be based on valid assessments.

Assessment

Assessment instruments and procedures must not be utilized in such a way that they discriminate against visually impaired students because of race; color; creed; sex; age; national origin; social, economic, or family background; or nonvisual experience. When there are no valid standardized tests normed on a sample of visually impaired students, modifications must be made to take into consideration the impact of nonvisual experiences on visually impaired students' performance on tests.

Professionals must guard against developing goals for students that are based on generalizations, rumor, or intuition. To be objective, fair, and helpful, it is imperative that professionals be skilled in evaluating formal and informal assessments that have been completed by others, in conducting assessments of students, and in applying valid assessment information to the development and implementation of IEPs.

Psychologists, occupational and physical therapists, and regular education, medical, and other related service personnel most often lack knowledge of and training in the effects of blindness and visual impairment on cognitive, psychological, motor, and other areas of development. Therefore, it is the responsibility of teachers of visually impaired students to work with others who conduct such assessments to increase the validity of their procedures, findings, and recommendations. It is also the teachers' responsibility to encourage the inclusion into the pre- and in-service training programs of course work in related fields that is relevant to visually impaired youngsters.

Supervision

Teachers of visually impaired students are frequently supervised by administrators with little or no formal training or experience in the field of blindness. This creates several problems:

- Supervisors are not aware of the techniques and methodologies used to instruct visually impaired students.

- Supervisors may question the amount of time devoted to travel, the acquisition of materials, the preparation of lesson plans, and individualized instruction.

- Teachers have a greater burden of justifying the needs of their students and the use of their time.

- IEP meetings for multiply handicapped/visually impaired students are often staffed by supervisors who have been trained in other disciplines instead of teachers of the visually impaired. Thus, the question arises of whether the meeting, as well as its outcome, is legally constituted. The law requires that IEP meetings be staffed by individuals who are knowledgeable about the student's disability.

A supervisory position implies neither knowledge nor competence. State certification standards should require that supervisors take course work in the disabilities for which they are responsible.

Advocacy

It is crucial that professionals in the field of blindness recognize inappropriate placements and educational programs, be able to substantiate why they are inappropriate, and initiate and effect changes as needed. They have an ethical responsibility to students to be skilled in acquiring the educational and support services that the students need.

Not only must professionals be aware of and enforce the educational rights of students as mandated by law, but they must inform students and their families of their rights and all potential services related to education. These rights and services include those mandated under specific laws, such as P.L. 94-142, P.L. 89-313, P.L. 98-199, and P.L. 93-380 (Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act), as well as those that are recommended, such as genetic counseling and other related services. Professionals must recognize when laws are unjust and when laws are needed to protect students' rights. For example, only 12 states require special education services from birth for visually impaired infants. Therefore, action must be taken to influence the necessary legislative changes. In addition, professionals must prepare students and their families to be their own advocates. The job of professionals is not to make students dependent, but to teach them to take charge of their lives--to be as self-sufficient, responsible, and independent as possible.

Furthermore, professionals have an ethical responsibility to be cognizant of laws pertaining to child abuse or neglect, to be familiar with procedures to follow when they suspect that a child is being abused or neglected, and to take action to ensure the physical, emotional, and psychological well-being of students.

Research

There is a paucity of scientific research on education of blind and visually impaired infants, children, and youth. Therefore, it is an ethical responsibility to be cautious in applying methodological approaches in the absence of theory, to cooperate with research efforts, to apply valid research findings to improve practice, and to disseminate practice methodologies that have a solid foundation in research. Professionals who are involved in research have a responsibility to ensure the welfare of students and families who serve as subjects by conducting research in an ethical manner, enforcing the principle of informed consent, and upholding the students' and families' rights to confidentiality. Information about students and their families should be released under specific conditions of written consent and statutory confidentiality.

Cultural considerations

It is imperative that professionals learn about and become sensitive to the cultures and customs of students and their families, treat the students and their parents with dignity, and respect their cultural preferences. Professionals should not impose their personal mores on children from different, conflicting cultures. For example, in teaching social and communication skills to American blind and visually impaired youngsters, eye contact is encouraged and reinforced. In Asian societies, eye contact is considered disrespectful.

Relationships with colleagues

The year 1984 was significant in the field of blindness, because it marked the alliance of two major professional organizations--the American Association of Workers for the Blind and the Association for Education for the Visually Handicapped. The Association for Education and Rehabilitation of the Blind and Visually Handicapped is an overt demonstration of commitment by those concerned with providing high quality services to blind and visually impaired infants, children, youth, and adults, to learn from and work with each other. This alliance is a living expression of the belief that higher quality and more unified services can be provided through cooperative efforts. But membership alone in a professional organization is not sufficient to assure cooperation. A firm ethical foundation must guide each individual's commitment to working with colleagues in all related professions as well as with those from the field of blindness.

Today's teachers, orientation and mobility specialists, administrators, and support staff in special education of blind and visually impaired children are involved in providing services to more infants, preschoolers, and developmentally delayed, autistic, multiply handicapped, and perhaps identified gifted visually impaired youngsters than ever before. Therefore, they must initiate, encourage, and affirm synergistic relationships with colleagues from other areas of special education and related fields to meet both the complex needs of the children and the increased demands on those who serve them.

Ethical relationships with colleagues require professionals to do the following:

- Initiate constructive dialogue and be available and responsive to those who serve students and their families.
- Communicate effectively with others in a timely manner. Acknowledge the expertise of colleagues.
- Constructively inform colleagues of the unique needs of visually impaired students.
- Work effectively as team members or leaders, disregarding territoriality and releasing role responsibilities when necessary.
- Sublimate emotions toward colleagues for the benefit of students.
- Support and actively participate in all relevant professional organizations, including those beyond the field of blindness.
- Refer students and families to appropriate service agencies and organizations.
- Report unethical or incompetent behavior and practices to the appropriate enforcement agency.

Professionals should support their employing agencies and institutions. However, they also have an ethical responsibility to change observed injustices or conditions that are harmful to students--no matter how difficult the reporting of unethical or incompetent behavior and practices may be. The welfare of students must be the foremost consideration. This objective must guide communication and actions with professional colleagues and personnel in all types of organizations and agencies.

Responsibilities to parents

Until the mid-1970s, the involvement of parents in education--particularly in special education--was marked by a laissez-faire attitude by parents and school personnel. Parents may have participated in parent-teacher organizations and attended open house at the schools, but they generally were not involved in educational decisions for their children unless there was a problem that necessitated special consultation. In contrast to the early days of public education in this country--when parents were both the administrators and the supervisors of local schools--school officials had come to expect parents to give up their responsibilities for their children's education when the children entered the public school system.

Today, special education laws contain a number of provisions that are designed to formalize the relationship between parents of children with disabilities and the school system. Some of these provisions are as follows:

- Notification of and request to evaluate students.
- Requirements that written communications be in the parent's native language.
- Mutual involvement in the development and writing of IEPs.
- Notice of rights of due process and confidentiality.
- Mechanisms to question and appeal, if necessary, the components of IEPs.
- Representation of parents on local advisory committees.
- Participation of parents in the evaluation of programs.
- Federal grants to parent-training and information centers.

Unfortunately, these provisions have not succeeded in changing fundamentally the way parents are treated in the educational system. One study found that most discussions at IEP meetings occurred among teachers and administrators (Goldstein, Stickland, Turnbull, & Curry, 1980). The National Committee for Citizens in Education's 1979 survey of parents in 46 states found that IEPs were written by teachers and presented to parents to sign in over half the IEP meetings surveyed ("Parent Involvement," 1980). (A notice of proposed rule making initiated by the Carter Administration in 1981 attempted to clarify what may have been a legitimate effort to streamline the IEP process by emphasizing that IEPs were to be written at the IEP meeting by the entire team; the proposed rule was withdrawn by then Secretary of Education Bell before it was scheduled to take effect.) A review of printed materials used by state and local education agencies to inform parents of the law (Roit & Pfohl, 1984) concluded that the materials may not be comprehensible to a large number of families, based on the reading level of the materials and the literacy of the U.S. population.

A study conducted by the California State Department of Education (Lynch, 1981) demonstrated that misunderstandings continue to plague parent-professional relationships. Special education teachers thought that the parents' apathy; their lack of time, energy, and understanding; and the school's not valuing the input of parents were the greatest barriers to participation of lower socioeconomic families. The teachers in this study were only doing what they had learned to do best: To judge parents, based on their own perceptions of what parents should or should not do. The parents in the study identified the greatest difficulties as logistical problems (for example, transportation and being released from work), the school system's lack of understanding, feelings of inferiority, and uncertainty about the child's disability and how the child could be helped by parents or by the school system.

This concept of judgment is not new, and is not limited to parents of children with disabilities. Teacher preparation programs are built on a strong foundation of psychoeducational theory, and it is neither uncommon nor

COURSE COMPETENCIES

The student will achieve the following competencies:

Describe the characteristics of students

- Define normalcy
- Describe characteristics of the handicapped (physical, mental, emotional)
- List the characteristics of the nontraditional student (older student, displaced homemaker, displaced male employee)
- Compare cultural differences of students

Describe the influence and effects of prejudice in the teaching/learning environment.

- Identify barriers that affect teacher and student communication
- Compare and contrast several methods used to remove or reduce barriers
- Identify techniques to improve the teaching/learning environment
- Identify techniques to improve acceptance/tolerance levels of students
- Describe how techniques will be used to reduce conflicts between students

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Mary Brennan
GOAL Counselor

Judy Foster
Single Parent

Jim Kimball
GOAL Counselor

Linda Layton
Psychology Instructor

Barb McVicker
Displaced Homemaker

Jan Ternent
Sex Equity

OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. After receiving permission from the resource personnel associated with a support group, attend a meeting of the support group or interview individually a single parent, displaced homemaker, and/or a displaced employee. When making your arrangements, determine with the resource personnel if (s)he needs to be present during the visit.

2. Before the visit or interview, identify specific areas of observation based on the course competencies and objectives which will help you to create an awareness and sensitivity to this special needs group.

3. After identifying the areas of observation, share them with the course facilitator prior to your visit or interview.

4. Following your visit or interview, reflect and respond in writing to the specific areas of observation previously identified.

5. View the video "Don't Drown in the Mainstream," NTC library. Reflect on the content and respond in writing to the video in your journal.

6. Read the following section from the course manual:

    C-1 to C-8

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SINGLE PARENTS: CAREER-RELATED ISSUES AND NEEDS

Today, 1 of every 4 families with children under the age of 18 is a single-parent family, up from 1 out of every 10 in 1970. Nearly 60 percent of all children born in 1986 may spend 1 year or longer in a single-parent family before reaching age 18 (Norton and Glick, 1986). Clearly a growing phenomenon, the single-parent family is often subject to extreme economic problems; single parents need special assistance with career development and vocational preparation. This ERIC Digest explores the nature of single parenthood and the special preemployment and employment needs of distinct types of single-parent families, highlighting the characteristics of effective career development programs to meet those needs.

Nature of Single Parenthood

Single parents commonly experience difficulties with role identity. Some social stigma is still attached to single-parent status, regardless of how it was acquired. For single mothers, development of a positive identity is often hampered by their inability to support their families financially. Single parents often experience role strain from attempting to balance wage earner and parental responsibilities.

Lack of formal education and consequently of job skills limits access to occupations that provide enough income for an acceptable standard of living. Women are additionally hindered by socialization into traditional female occupations that are low paying, perpetuating the cycle of poverty (Burge, 1987).

Poverty is persistently linked with single-parent households, especially those headed by women. Such families are the poorest of all major demographic groups in the United States (Garfinkel and McLanahan, 1986). Wage differences between men and women, arising from lack of labor market preparation or experience or from discrimination reinforce low-income status.

Although child care is an issue for all parents, an overwhelming number of single parents cannot afford high quality day care, a major barrier to attending career development and skills training programs as well as to maintaining employment.

Among the solutions to these problems are changes in public policy and public attitudes toward single-parent families and more adequate financial support and child care systems. Another key is career development. In addition to employment and economic security, career education can improve the physical and emotional well-being of participants (Burge, 1987).

Types of Single Parents

The vast majority of single-parent families are low-income families consisting of a mother and her young children, characterized by a high percentage of minority representation and relatively little formal education. Three major subgroups of one-parent families have also been identified: displaced homemakers, adolescent mothers, and single fathers (Burge, 1987).

Displaced Homemakers

Marital dissolution drastically reduces the new single-parent family's available income. Displaced homemakers are at an additional disadvantage because they often have little or no employment history, obsolete training or skills, low self-esteem, and external locus of control.

Adolescent Mothers

Each year in America, 1 in 10 teenage girls becomes pregnant. This vast subgroup of single parents faces many obstacles to self-sufficiency, such as lack of education, job readiness, and emotional maturity. Their crucial need to complete education and achieve employment goals is complicated by their immediate needs for food, housing, child care, and emotional support (Time for Transition, 1985).

Single Fathers

Although they generally have a more healthy economic status than their female counterparts, single fathers often find their sole child-rearing role conflicting with work expectations. They also find themselves filling social roles for which they are not prepared.

Career Development Needs of Single Parents

As the sole support of their families, single parents are concerned with obtaining a good job and achieving economic independence. However, job training and job placement can be effective in the long run only if other needs are also addressed. Program developers should consider the following aspects:

- Emotional support (counseling, peer groups, assistance with developing support systems)
- Job-seeking skills
- Basic skills instruction (especially literacy skills)
- Outreach and recruitment
- Child care
- Analysis of the role of gender in occupational choice
- Self-concept building
- Skills assessment
- The challenges of combining work and family roles
- Nontraditional job skills
- Parenthood education

Career Development Programs

Meeting the needs of the many types of one-parent families is a major social challenge. Program developers must offer a full range of services from occupational exploration to job search assistance. Following are some examples of types of career development programs for single parents (Burge, 1987).

High School Dropout Prevention Programs

Pregnant teens and teen parents are special targets for dropout prevention. Effective programs should include basic academic skills as well as occupational preparation, accurate information and guidance related to sexuality and family planning, prenatal and family life instruction, and support networks of teachers and peers who can assist with self-esteem, time and stress management, and long- and short-term goal setting. Pregnant teens and teen parents can participate in alternative high school programs or mainstreamed in regular classrooms.

Established Education Sites

Many single parents may feel more comfortable in the adult education atmosphere provided in area vocational centers and community centers. Such established sites already offer such services as basic literacy instruction, personal and career counseling, assistance for reentry students, and job placement. Child care centers at these sites would overcome one of the major barriers for single parents returning to school.

Networks and Newsletters

Single parents frequently do not use the resources available to them, due to the extensive time and effort needed to locate them or to discouraging past experiences (Time for Transition, 1985). Support and referral networks can help them identify the community agencies that offer assistance with legal problems, health care, emergency funds, housing, shelter and protection, substance abuse, and other matters. Such networks can also provide advice on determining eligibility, meeting requirements, and negotiating for services with these agencies.

Newsletters are an inexpensive strategy for communicating with, educating, and supporting single parents. They can be used to supplement group or individual career development activities. Work, homemaking, and child care demands often cause problems with attendance at formal programs, making newsletters an effective outreach technique.

Federally Funded Programs

The Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act emphasizes support of increased vocational education opportunities for displaced homemakers and single parents, among other groups. Many sites in Florida have used Perkins Act funding for projects ranging from balancing family life, education, and employment to increasing awareness of nontraditional careers, achieving business ownership, and assisting with day care and sick child care. (The ERIC database contains descriptions of many Florida programs--see ED 285 039-049 and ED 285 988-999.)

Title II-A of the Job Training Partnership Act provides assistance to persons who have experienced barriers to employment, including displaced homemakers, single heads of households, and teenage parents. Funding for support services can be used for child care to increase participation. In addition, the 6 percent set-aside provides incentive grants for serving the special needs of these groups.

Policy Concerns

In addition to developing effective programs, career educators can be advocates for public policy designed to assist single parents. Policy changes are needed in the areas of employment discrimination, recognition of nontraditional roles, government and employer support of child care, pay equity, social services for potential teen single parents, and work environment alternatives. In short, policies that establish an equitable educational and economic climate for both sexes and all ethnic groups as well as recognition of single-parent families as a viable family form will benefit not only these families but society as a whole.

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Additional References

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Norton, A. J. and Glick, P. C., One-Parent Families: A Social and Economic Profile. Family Relations 35, no. 1 (January 1986), 9-17. (ERIC No. EJ 332 628)

Time for Transition: Teenage Parents and Employment, New York, NY, National Child Labor Committee, 1985 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 096)

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Columbus, OH

NONTRADITIONAL OCCUPATIONS: A STATUS REPORT

In the 1970s and 1980s, efforts have been made to encourage men and women to choose occupations nontraditional for their sex. For example, the Perkins Act and the Final Regulations for the Act prescribe that 3.5 percent of the funds reserved under the Vocational Education Opportunities Program be designated for individuals who are participants in programs designed to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping in vocational education (Section 401.92), often referred to as the sex equity program. Have such efforts resulted in individuals crossing traditional gender lines in making career choices? In choosing nontraditional programs, do men and women continue to face problems?

In order to assess the effect of the efforts to encourage the selection of nontraditional occupations, Vetter (forthcoming) examined the extent of change in enrollment patterns of girls and women in vocational education for the period 1972-82. In the traditionally male programs of agriculture, technical, and trade and industry education, both the number and percentage of female students has increased. However, within these categories, the growth was primarily due to increased enrollment of women in such traditional programs as cosmetology (categorized in trade and industry) and in data processing (technical), although there were some increases in such trade and industry areas as commercial photography, drafting, graphic arts, and law enforcement programs.

On the other hand, the traditionally female areas of occupational home economics and office occupations showed an increase in male student enrollment. Within office occupations, women have made noteworthy advances in the area of supervisory and administrative management, where they now account for over half the students enrolled in this program, as compared to one quarter in 1971. Vetter suggested that the enrollment changes within home economics and office occupations are probably attributable to the efforts to recruit nontraditional students.

Although advances have been made in nontraditional enrollments, women and men who enroll in nontraditional programs face a number of problems. These include sex bias and stereotyping; harassment; lack of support by family, school personnel, and peers; lack of guidance programs; lack of role models; and job placement. If there is to be continuing progress in the area of nontraditional enrollments within vocational education, these deterrents need to be addressed.

More information about nontraditional occupations and vocational education can be obtained by consulting the resources below. In addition to print resources, groups and organizations that support entry into nontraditional occupations are listed.

Print Resources

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Dillon, Linda S. "Attitudes toward Sexual Discrimination and Nontraditional Roles." Journal of Vocational and Technical Education 3, no. 1 (Fall 1986):3-12. (ERIC No. EJ 344 783)

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Harlan, Carolyn L., and Jansen, Mary A. "The Psychological and Physical Well-Being of Women in Sex-Stereotyped Occupations." Journal of Employment Counseling 24, no. 1 (March 1987): 31-39. (ERIC No. EJ 353 496)

Hartmann, Heidi I,, Kraut, Robert E., and Tilly, Louise A., eds. Computer Chips and Paper Clips: Technology and Women's Employment. 2 vols. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1986. (ERIC Nos. ED 294 021-022)

Hayes, Rader. "Gender Nontraditional or Sex Atypical or Gender Dominant or . . . Research: Are We Measuring the Same Thing?" Journal of Vocational Behavior 29, no. 1 (August 1986): 79-88. (ERIC No. EJ 342 208)

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Shank, Susan E. "Women and the Labor Market: The Link Grows Stronger." Monthly Labor Review 111, no. 3 (March 1988): 3-8. (ERIC No. EJ 368 414)

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Women's Bureau. The Coal Employment Project--How Women Can Make Breakthroughs in Nontraditional Industries. Washington, DC: Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, 1985. (ERIC No. ED 271 601).

Wysong, H. Eugene. Breaking the Chain of Stereotyping. Building Student Awareness of the Effect of Sex-Role Stereotyping (Grades 7-12). Columbus: Division of Vocational and Career Education, Ohio Department of Education, 1986. (ERIC No. ED 275 886).

Resource Organizations

Catalyst Resource on the Work Force and Women, 250 Park Avenue S., New York, NY 10003 (212/777-8900).

Coalition of Labor Union Women, Center for Education and Research, 2000 P Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036 (202/296-3408).

Equal Rights Advocates for Women, 1370 Mission Street, 4th Floor, San Francisco, CA 94103 (415/621-0505).

National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education, c/o Displaced Homemakers Network, 1141 K Street, NW, Suite 930, Washington, DC 20005 (202/682-0940).

Project on Equal Education Rights, 1333 H Street, NW, 11th Floor, Washington, DC 20005 (202/682-0940).

Tradeswomen, Inc., P.O. Box 40664, San Francisco, CA 94140 (415/821-7334).

Wider Opportunities for Women, 1325 G Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005 (202/737-5764).

Women Employed Institute, 5 South Wabash, Suite 415, Chicago, IL 60603 (312/782-3902).

Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, 200 Constitution Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20210 (202/523-6611).

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DIVORCE - A SELECTIVE GUIDE

Since the 1960s, there has been a steady increase in divorce and at present, almost one in two marriages end in divorce. Over a million divorces are occurring each year. The initial and lifetime impact of divorce on both parents and children is tremendous. Psychologists consider divorce to be life's second greatest stressor--second only to death.

This bibliography is a selective guide to materials on the subject of divorce. This list does not contain all library materials available on divorce. Information can also be found in a library's magazine collection, pamphlet collection, and through interlibrary loan service. Reference staff will help you in searching for particular titles or information as needed.

DIVORCE

FAMILIES ARE FOREVER: CREATING AND RECREATING HAPPIER, HEALTHIER FAMILIES / Nathan Schaefer. (1985)

FINDING YOUR PLACE AFTER DIVORCE / Carole Streeter. (1986)

45--AND SINGLE AGAIN / Mildred Hope Witkin. (1985)

IS THERE LIFE AFTER DIVORCE IN THE CHURCH / Richard Morgan. (1985)

NEW HOPE FOR DIVORCED CATHOLICS: A CONCERNED PASTOR OFFERS ALTERNATIVES TO ANNULMENT / Barry Brunsman. (1985)

THE RE-MATING GAME: DATING AND RELATING IN MIDDLE LIFE / Max Marshall. (1988)

THE SINGLE-AGAIN MAN / Jane Burgess. (1988)

SUDDENLY SINGLE: LEARNING TO START OVER THROUGH THE EXPERIENCE OF OTHERS / John Robertson. (1986)

UNCOUPLING: TURNING POINTS IN INTIMATE RELATIONSHIPS / Diane Vaughan. (1986)

DIVORCE - LEGAL AND FINANCIAL ASPECTS

DAYS LIKE THIS / Phyllis Gillis. (1986)

DIVORCE REVOLUTION: THE UNEXPECTED SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN AMERICA / Lenore Weltzman. (1985)

DIVORCING / Melvin Belli. (1988)

THE DOLLARS AND SENSE OF DIVORCE: A FINANCIAL GUIDE FOR WOMEN / Judith Briles. (1988)

THE EX-FACTOR: THE COMPLETE DO-IT-YOURSELF POST-DIVORCE HANDBOOK / Bernard Clair. (1986)

FINANCIAL FITNESS THROUGH DIVORCE / Elizabeth Lewin. (1987)

GETTING YOUR SHARE: THE DIVORCE BOOK FOR WOMEN ONLY / Lois Brenner. (1989)

MOTHERS AND DIVORCE: LEGAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DILEMMAS / Terry Arendell. (1986)

PRACTICAL DIVORCE SOLUTIONS / Charles Sherman. (1988)

REMATCH: WINNING LEGAL BATTLES WITH YOUR EX / Steven Lake. (1989)

A WOMAN'S LEGAL GUIDE TO SEPARATION AND DIVORCE IN ALL 50 STATES / Norma Harwood. (1985)

CHILDREN OF DIVORCED PARENTS

HELPING CHILDREN OF DIVORCE: A HANDBOOK FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS / Susan Arnsberg Diamond. (1985)

PLEASE COME HOME: A BOOK ABOUT DIVORCE AND LEARNING AND GROWING / Doris Sanford. (1985)

PUTTING IT TOGETHER: TEENAGERS TALK ABOUT FAMILY BREAKUP / Paula McGuire. (1987)

QUALITY TIME: EASING THE CHILDREN THROUGH DIVORCE / Melvin Goldsband. (1985)

SECOND CHANCES: MEN, WOMEN, AND CHILDREN A DECADE AFTER DIVORCE / Judith Wallerstein. (1989)

VICKI LANSKY'S DIVORCE BOOK FOR PARENTS: HELPING YOUR CHILDREN COPE WITH DIVORCE AND ITS AFTERMATH / Vicki Lansky. (1989)

YOURS, MINE, AND OURS: HOW FAMILIES CHANGE WHEN REMARRIED PARENTS HAVE A CHILD TOGETHER / Anne Bernstein. (1989)

SINGLE PARENTS

HOW TO SINGLE PARENT / Fitzhugh Dodson. (1988)

KIDS' BOOK ABOUT SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES: KIDS FOR EVERYONE (1985)

ON BEING FATHER: A DIVORCED MAN TALKS ABOUT SHARING THE NEW RESPONSIBILITIES OF PARENTHOOD / Frank Ferrara. (1985)

ON OUR OWN: A SINGLE PARENT'S SURVIVAL GUIDE / John DeFrain. (1987)

SEX AND THE SINGLE MOTHER: ROMANCE AND RELATIONSHIPS IN THE EIGHTIES / Dawn Sova (1987)

SEX AND THE SINGLE PARENT: HOW YOU CAN HAVE HAPPY AND HEALTHY KIDS--AND AN ACTIVE SOCIAL LIFE / Mary Mattis. (1986)

THE SINGLE AGAIN MAN / Jane Burgess. (1988)

SINGLE MOTHERS AND THEIR CHILDREN: A NEW AMERICAN DILEMMA / Irwin Garfinkel. (1986)

SINGLE MOTHERS RAISING SONS / Bobbie Reed. (1988)

SOLO PARENTING: YOUR ESSENTIAL GUIDE: HOW TO FIND THE BALANCE BETWEEN PARENTHOOD AND PERSONHOOD / Kathleen McCoy. (1987)

SUCCESSFUL SINGLE PARENTING / Anne Wayman. (1987)

AGENCIES AND ORGANIZATIONS

BIG BROTHERS/BIG SISTERS
431 N. Third Avenue
Wausau, WI 54401
842-4624

DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAM
Northcentral Technical College
1000 W. Campus Drive
Wausau, WI 54401
675-3331

DIVORCE SUPPORT GROUP
Community Service Center
903 Second Street
Wausau, WI 54401
842-3346 or 842-3343

FAMILY COUNSELING SERVICE OF WAUSAU
903 Second Street
Wausau, WI 54401
842-3346

HEALTH MAINTENANCE SERVICES, INC.
617 N. Third Avenue
Wausau, WI 54401
675-7981

LUTHERAN COUNSELING AND FAMILY SERVICES OF WIS.
Suite D
503 1/2 Jefferson
Wausau, WI 54401
845-6289

MARATHON COUNTY CHILD SUPPORT AGENCY
400 E. Thomas Street
Wausau, WI 54401
847-5774

NORTH CENTRAL HEALTH CARE FACILITIES
1100 Lake View Drive
Wausau, WI 54401
848-4600

SEPARATED, DIVORCED, AND WIDOWED CHRISTIANS
Wausau, WI 54401
848-2502

SURVIVAL SUPPORT GROUP FOR ADULT WOMEN ON THEIR OWN
Northcentral Technical College
1000 W. Campus Drive
Wausau, WI 54401
675-3331

WAUSAU SOLOS
Jan Kuehlman, Pres.
704 N. Ninth Avenue
Wausau, WI 54401
845-6575

WISCONSIN JUDICARE, INC.
408 Third Street
Wausau, WI 54401
842-1681 or 1-800-472-1638

THE WOMEN'S COMMUNITY
Geri Heinz-Fergus, Director
329 Fourth Street
Wausau, WI 54401
842-5663

WOMEN'S HEALTH NETWORK
Wausau Hospital Center
333 Pine Ridge Boulevard
Wausau, WI 54401
847-2380

Descriptions of the services of these agencies are found in WHERE TO GET HELP IN MARATHON COUNTY - A Directory of Community Resources. This directory is available for your use at the Marathon County Public Library, 847-5530.

BIBLIOGRAPHY - ASSERTIVENESS

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Berne, Eric, What to Say After You Say Hello

Bloom, Coburn, Perlman, The New Assertive Woman, Dell

Bramson, Robert, Coping with Difficult People

Brothers, Joyce, How to Get Whatever You Want Out of Life

Carnegie, Dale, The Quick and Easy Way to Effective Speaking

Fast, Julius, Body Language

Harris, Thomas, I'm OK, You're OK

Helmstetter, Shad, What to Say When You Talk to Yourself

How to Talk So Kids Will Listen, Listen So Kids Will Talk

Jakubowski and Lange, Responsible Assertive Behavior, Research

Neuman, Berkwitz, How to Take Charge of Your Life

Peale, Norman Vincent, You Can If You Think You Can

Smith, Manuel, When I Say No, I Feel Guilty

Taubman, How to Become an Assertive Woman, Pocket

Your Perfect Right

Zastrow, Charles, Talk to Yourself

Zunen, Leonard, Contact: The First Four Minutes

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Adams, Otto, Cowley, Letting Go: Uncomplicating Your Life, MacMillan

Augsburger, David, Caring Enough to Forgive

Bracken, Hazelton, Daddy Doesn't Live Here Anymore, Goldenbooks

Brazelton, T. Berry, Working and Caring, Addison-Wesley

Bridges, William, Transitions, Addison-Wesley Co.

Calgrove, Bloomfield, McWilliams, How to Survive the Loss of a Love, Bantam

Clark, Jean Illsey, Self-Esteem: A Family Affair

Conway, Women in Midlife Crisis, Tyndale

Crowther, Intimacy, Capra

DeRosis, Helen, Women and Anxiety, Delta

DeRosis, Helen, and Virginia Pelegrino, The Book of Hope

Dobson, James, How to Single Parent, Harper & Row

Dobson, James, Love Must Be Tough

Durkin, Mary, Making Your Family Work, AGS

Fisher, Bruce, Rebuilding, Impact

Ginsburg, Genevieve Davis, To Live Again

Hazelton, Love and Addiction

Johnson, Stephen, First Person Singular

Jongeward, Women as Winners, Addison-Wesley

Krautzler, Mel, Learning to Love Again, Thomas Crowell Co.

Kreis, Bernadine, To Love Again, Seabury Press

Krementz, Jill, How It Feels When Parents Divorce

Leider, Richard, The Power of Purpose

Lerner, Harriet Goldhor, The Dance of Anger, Harper and Row

Mattison, Judith, Divorce, The Pain and the Healing, Augsburg

Norwood, Robin, Women Who Love Too Much, Pocket

Ourselves Growing Older, Touchstone

Paul & Paul, *Do I Have to Give Up Me to Be Loved by You?*

Rogers, *Mister Rogers Talks with Families about Divorce*, Berkely

Reese, Mary Ellen, *Moving On*, Wyden Books

Roufes, Evie, *The Kids Book of Divorce*, Vintage

Rubin, Theodore Isaac, *The Angry Book*, MacMillan Co.

Russianoff, Penelope, *Why Do I Think I'm Nothing Without a Man*, Bantam

Salk, Dr. Lee, *What Every Child Would Like Parents to Know About Divorce*, Harper & Row

Schaef, Anne, *Codependence: Misunderstood, Mistreated*

Shahan, Lyn, *Living Alone and Liking It*, Warner

Sher, Barbara, *Wishcraft*

Sparks, James Allen, *Friendships After Forty*, Abingdon Press

The New Our Bodies, Ourselves, Touchstone

Viorst, Judith, *Necessary Losses*, Fawcett

Wanderer & Cabot, *Letting Go*

Woititz, Janet, *Adult Children of Alcoholics*

Wylie, Betty Jane, *The Survival Guide for Widows*, Ballantine

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Bloomfield, Harold, Making Peace with Your Parents

Bloomfield, Harold, Making Peace with Yourself

Bridges, Transitions

Briggs, Dorothy Corkille, Your Child's Self-Esteem

Briggs, Dorothy Corkille, Celebrating Yourself: Enhancing Your Own Self-Esteem

Brilliant, I May Not Be Totally Perfect, But Parts of Me Are Excellent

Brothers, Joyce, How to Get Whatever You Want Out of Life

Buscaglia, Leo, Love; Personhood; Living, Loving, and Learning

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Collins, Pat, How to Be a Really Nice Person

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Dobson, James, Love for a Lifetime, Harper and Row

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Dyer, Wayne, The Sky's the Limit (and other books by this author)

Faber and Mazlish, Siblings Without Rivalry, Norton

Fast, Julius, Body Language

Freed, Alvyn M., TA for Tots, Jalmar

Friedman, Milton and Rose, Free to Choose

Gaylin, Willard, Feelings

Greenwald, Jerry, Be the Person You Were Meant to Be

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Harris, Thomas, I'm OK, You're OK

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Helmstetter, Shad, What to Say When You Talk to Yourself

James, Muriel, & Dorothy Jongeward, Born to Win

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Leman, Kevin, and Randy Carlson, Unlocking Your Childhood Memories

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Dodson, Dr. Fitzhugh, *How to Parent*, Signet

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Dodson, Dr. Fitzhugh, *Your Child, Birth to 6*, Simon & Schuster

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Growing Up is Hard Sometimes

Hazelton, Bracken, Daddy Doesn't Live Here Anymore, Goldenbooks

How to Talk So Kids Will Listen, Listen So Kids Will Talk

It Isn't Fair (Sibling Rivalry), Goldenbooks

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The More Things Change. . . A Status Report on Displaced Homemakers and Single Parents in the 1980s (published May 1990 - national report available through displaced homemaker advisors at each VTAE campus or directly from:

National Displaced Homemakers Network
1411 K Street, NW, Suite 930
Washington, DC 20005

Displaced Homemaker Grants - EVALUATION REPORT
Issued annually. State statistics on displaced homemakers served available through displaced homemaker advisors on each campus or directly from:

WBVTAE
310 Price Place
P.O. Box 7874
Madison, WI 53707

Displaced Homemakers: Organizing for a New Life
by Laurie Shields, 1981, McGraw-Hill
Available through Northcentral Technical College displaced homemaker advisor, possibly at other VTAE campuses

Partners in Change - 17-minute video
Award-winning video highlighting contributions mature women, especially displaced homemakers, can make in today's work force
Available from VTAE, displaced homemaker advisors, or directly from National Displaced Homemakers Network

Newsletters:

National: Network News
National Displaced Homemakers Network
1411 K Street, NW, Suite 930
Washington, DC 20005

State: Woman to Woman, Friend to Friend
Wisconsin Displaced Homemakers Network
Northcentral Technical College
1000 W. Campus Drive
Wausau, WI 54401

Older Women's League: The OWL Observer
Bimonthly

OWL
730 Eleventh Street NW, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20001

Note: Has excellent publications on issues facing older women

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WORKING AGE
AARP newsletter about the changing work force (free)

AARP
1909 K Street NW
Washington, DC 20049

Displaced Homemaker Advocacy Groups

National Displaced Homemakers Network
1411 K Street, NW, Suite 930
Washington, DC 20005

Wisconsin Displaced Homemakers Network
Northcentral Technical College
1000 W. Campus Drive
Wausau, WI 54401

NORTH CENTRAL WISCONSIN
DISPLACED HOMEMAKER PROGRAM

The Displaced Homemaker Program is a special program designed to meet the needs of individuals who are going through a period of transition from homemaking to paid employment.

Displaced Homemakers are generally women, but can be men, who have provided unpaid services in the home for a number of years, then are forced to seek employment due to death, divorce, separation, or permanent disability of a spouse.

They primarily are between the ages of 40 and 65, but if younger, may still qualify for the Displaced Homemaker Program. Those who are underemployed may also qualify if their income does not provide enough support to make a reasonable living.

Northcentral Technical College and The Women's Community, Inc., provide comprehensive preemployment services including counseling, support groups, career exploration, life work planning, assistance in job placement, information on training and educational programs, and personal management skills. The program offers the opportunity to share with and learn from others experiencing similar life transitions in a warm, supportive atmosphere. Some state funds are available to help individuals access services.

Persons wishing to explore the options available to them, learn more about themselves, and wanting support in finding employment should contact the following:

WAUSAU

The Women's Community
P.O. Box 6215
329 Fourth Street
Wausau, Wisconsin 54401
(715) 845-5663

and

Career Development Center
Northcentral Technical College
1000 W. Campus Drive
Wausau, Wisconsin 54401
(715) 675-3331, ext. 251

ANTIGO

Career Development Center
Northcentral Technical College,
East Campus
Box 28, Forrest Avenue
Antigo, Wisconsin 54409
(715) 623-7601

MEDFORD

Career Development Center
Northcentral Technical College,
West Campus
624 E. College
Medford, Wisconsin 54451
(715) 748-3603

PHILLIPS

Career Development Center
Northcentral Technical College
North Campus
1408 Pine Ridge Road
Phillips, Wisconsin 54555
(715) 339-4555

WOMEN'S SUPPORT AND DISCUSSION GROUP

WHO?

Women who are:
- Divorced
- Separated
- Widowed
- Disabled spouse

We are displaced homemakers who are survivors of marriages that did not last forever.

WHAT?

This is a self-directed support group of persons with similar interests, needs, and concerns.

Together we create a safe place to grow and heal as we offer as well as receive mutual respect and support.

Each person is expected to take responsibility for providing a balance of give and take--satisfying both personal needs and those of other group members.

The group is based on the MUTUAL RESPECT and TRUST of each of its members. Its primary focus is on positive/constructive outcomes.

This is a facilitated self-help group and not a therapy group.

BENEFITS?

The group presents an opportunity to:
- Develop self-esteem
- Learn self-care techniques
- Practice new behaviors/attitudes
- Build self-confidence
- Meet others who understand
- Experience personal growth

GROUP GUIDELINES?

- Confidentiality - "What's said here, stays here."
- Attendance - Each person is asked to commit for at least four sessions. We depend on each other!
- Listen to those speaking and respond with appropriate feedback.
- Your silence is respected and your participation is encouraged.

OFFERED THROUGH STATE DISPLACED HOMEMAKER FUNDING BY:

NORTHCENTRAL TECHNICAL COLLEGE AND
THE WOMEN'S COMMUNITY INC.

WOMAN TO WOMAN, FRIEND TO FRIEND
June 1990
Wisconsin Displaced Homemakers Network

INTERVIEW

By the Editor
by Mary Sann

A few weeks ago I met Sue (not her real name) who is in the midst of a bad situation. She was willing to share her story with me and asked to share her story with you just to let people know that if you are in a bad situation you are not alone and there is help and hope.

"I can't do this emotionally and financially by myself. I am going over the bridge."

"What kind of parent am I? This is not what goes on in our family. I cannot face people and tell them my problems. What will they think of me and my family?"

Here I am, 41 years old, married and divorced twice, only 1 year of high school education, no real work experience, health problems that make it impossible for me to work even if I had the skills. I am financially broke and unable to qualify for welfare because my daughter just turned 18 years old and will be starting technical school shortly and a 21-year-old son who never finished high school and is in and out of trouble with the law due to drugs and alcohol.

"Is there a place that I can call just to talk? I am too embarrassed to let anyone know that I have all these problems. I am fighting thoughts of suicide and depression. I cannot always be a caretaker and do for everyone else. I have to start to do something for me."

The Wisconsin Displaced Homemakers Program is helping me find the start for myself. I am involved in the displaced homemaker support group facilitated by The Women's Community and Northcentral Technical College and have started in the GOAL program. I am working on getting my GED. I have decided that I will get a diploma because I have a little granddaughter and I want her to know that if you set goals and work at them you can make it.

I get depressed but no matter how tough I will get up and fight. "Yes, I can do it."

* * * * *

- If I think I can,
- If I think I can,
- If I think I can, I can.
- If I think I can't,
- If I think I can't,
- If I think I can't, I can't.
- But I think I can,
- Yes, I think I can,
- I think I can.

Drugs and Alcohol

The drug problem touches not only the large cities but also small towns and the rural areas of our state.

Federal support for anti-drug efforts is nine times as large as it was in 1981. More than one in every five federal anti-drug dollars is distributed in states and localities to assist in law enforcement, treatment, and education.

Wisconsin is getting $33.6 million to help in drug and alcohol abuse programs.

* * * * *

QUESTIONS ABOUT PROBLEM DRINKING

Alcohol abuse causes misery and despair for thousands of families. Here are twenty questions that can help to determine whether or not a drinking problem exists within a given family:

1. Do you lose sleep because of a problem drinker?
2. Do most of your thoughts revolve around the problem drinker or problems that arise because of him or her?
3. Do you extract promises about the drinking which are not kept?
4. Do you make threats or decisions and not follow through on them?
5. Has your attitude changed toward this problem drinker - alternating between love and hate?
6. Do you mark, hide, dilute, and/or empty bottles of liquor or medication?
7. Do you think that everything would be OK if only the problem drinker would stop or control the drinking?
8. Do you feel alone-fearful--anxious--angry and frustrated most of the time? Are you beginning to feel dislike for yourself and to wonder about your sanity?
9. Do you find your moods fluctuating wildly as a direct result of the problem drinker's moods and actions?
10. Do you feel responsible and guilty about the drinking problem?
11. Do you try to conceal, deny, or protect the problem drinker?
12. Have you withdrawn from outside activities and friends because of embarrassment and shame over the drinking problem?
13. Have you taken over many chores and duties that you would normally expect the problem drinker to assume, or that were formerly his or hers?

14. Do you feel forced to try to exert tight control over the family expenditures with less success? Are financial problems increasing?

15. Do you feel the need to justify your actions and attitudes and, at the same time, feel somewhat smug and self-righteous compared to the drinker?

16. If there are children in the home, do they often take sides with either the problem drinker or the spouse?

17. Are the children showing signs of emotional stress, such as withdrawing, having trouble with authority figures, rebelling, acting-out sexually?

18. Have you noticed physical symptoms in yourself, such as _________, shakiness, sweating palms, bitten fingernails?

19. Do you feel utterly defeated? Nothing you can say or do will move the problem drinker? Do you believe that he or she can't get better?

20. Where this applies, is your sexual relationship with a problem drinker affected by feelings of revulsion? Do you use sex to manipulate? Or refuse sex to punish him or her?

LAKELAND COUNCIL ON ALCOHOLISM AND OTHER DRUG ABUSE
415 MENOMINEE STREET, P.O. BOX 967
MINOCQUA, WI 54548

* * * * *

Project DARE
[Drug Abuse Resistance Education - a national police/school prevention program]

FACT SHEET

1. A drug is a substance other than food that affects the structure and function of the body.
   Answer: TRUE

2. Joint, pot, grass, weed, and "J" are all slang terms for marijuana.
   Answer: TRUE

3. If your son/daughter displays the following signs, you would suspect marijuana use: altered sense of time, impaired short-term memory, increased appetite, and reddening of the eyes.
   Answer: TRUE

4. Marijuana is the most commonly abused drug in the United States today.
   Answer: FALSE. Although marijuana is used at an epidemic level, alcohol is the most widely abused drug in the United States. Valium is the most abused prescribed drug in the United States.

5. Children are usually introduced to drugs by a known drug dealer who either attends their school or "hangs around" before or after school.
Answer: FALSE. Most children are introduced to drugs by their friends and it's the peer pressure that makes it so difficult for youth to say "no" to drugs.

6. If your son/daughter displays the following signs, you would suspect drug misuse: changes in attendance at school, changes in normal capabilities, poor physical appearance, association with a different set of friends, and possible stealing of money or items that could be easily sold.
Answer: TRUE. Any change in "normal" behavior is a sign of possible drug use or misuse. The best clue any parent can have is to look for anything different, i.e., friends and personal habits. Parents should also be aware of unusual emotional extremes, unusual appetite extremes, and poor physical health.

7. Marijuana hinders emotional and physical development in adolescents.
Answer: TRUE. Marijuana use can prevent adolescents from maturing physically, emotionally, and socially. They avoid problems, fail to learn from the previous mistakes, are unable to face challenges, and cannot learn to postpone immediate pleasures for more meaningful and lasting ones. They often fantasize and dream in an abnormal way; they are less likely to experience feelings of personal achievement or close friendships. Often they no longer feel a need for other people. Marijuana users participate in fewer of the emotional and psychological stages critical to growing up and they may never "catch up" to the social, educational, or emotional levels of the nonuser.

8. Smoking marijuana may be more harmful than smoking regular cigarettes.
Answer: TRUE. Marijuana smoke contains more cancer-causing agents than tobacco smoke and, like tobacco, can produce sore throats, coughs, bronchitis, and other serious breathing difficulties. Marijuana also causes a short-term increase in heart rate while at the same time decreasing blood supply to the user's heart.

9. Marijuana absorbed into the bloodstream takes approximately one week to be eliminated from the body.
Answer: FALSE. Marijuana seeks out fatty tissues of all body cells including the lungs, reproductive organs, and brain cells (the brain is one-third fat). Only very slowly do they leak back out into the bloodstream to be eliminated. It takes about a month for all chemicals in a single joint to clear from the body. If one continues to smoke marijuana, it accumulates in the fatty tissue and the body is never free.

10. Alcohol is a stimulant.
Answer: FALSE. Alcohol is a depressant, although most people think it is a stimulant. Unlike food, which must be digested, alcohol goes directly into the bloodstream.

11. Alcohol is addicting.
Answer: TRUE. Heavy alcohol abuse leads to cirrhosis of the liver, ulcers, and brain damage. Alcohol is highly addictive and produces both tolerance and severe withdrawal. There are over 10 million alcoholics in the U.S. alone.

12. The combination of alcohol and marijuana increases the intoxicating effects and coordination is further impaired.
Answer: TRUE. The principle effect of the combination of alcohol and marijuana is one of addition: one dosage unit of alcohol taken with one dosage unit of marijuana has the effect of four or five combined units.

13. The misuse of alcohol or marijuana can ultimately lead to death.
Answer: TRUE. Alcohol can cause death after consuming a large amount over a short period of time. However, the only deaths from marijuana have occurred after attempts at intravenous injections.

14. Cocaine is addicting.
Answer: TRUE. Abuse of this drug can result in extreme psychological dependence and severe depression. Chronic use of cocaine can result in "cocaine psychosis" which is a condition much like paranoid schizophrenia where a person is afraid of "events" that wouldn't normally be scary.

15. Inhalation of liquid paper (correction fluid) has been responsible for deaths among young people.
Answer: TRUE. In 1984, two deaths from the inhalation of liquid paper were reported in a Canadian newspaper. Although it is not widely abused, many cases of experimenting with it have been reported. It is the solvent agent in the liquid paper that is toxic.

* * * * *

YESTERDAY AND TODAY

Yesterday: In ancient Rome a woman was forced to kiss all her male relatives, as well as those of her husband, to see if she had been drinking wine. Execution was a possible punishment.

Today: If a woman alcoholic has a family, her husband and children are more likely to "protect" her and themselves from public exposure than encourage her to seek help.

Yesterday: During the 18th century "gin epidemic," British slum mothers were accused of drinking too much gin and causing the death of three out of four children before the age of 5.

Today: Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS) includes a constellation of physical and mental defects that occur as a result of alcohol exposure during pregnancy.

Yesterday: In the 1880s a Ladies Home Journal survey found that 3 out of 4 Women's Christian Temperance Union members used patent medicine with an alcohol content of 1/8 to 1/2 pure spirits.

Today: More adult women are drinking today than ever before. Yet it is still considered more shameful for a woman to have a drinking problem than for a man.

Yesterday: In 1897 a Brooklyn physician recommended that the alcoholic woman who does not respond to treatment be "desexualized," i.e., have her uterus and ovaries removed.

Today: While women abusers comprise approximately 50% of the abusing population, only 19% of the AODA treatment population is female.

Yesterday: In 1938 a Ladies Home Journal survey said that the majority of women would not teach their daughters to drink, although most did not object to alcohol use by their sons.

Today: 70% of high school girls and 85% of college women drink--about the same percentages as males.

Acknowledgments to NIAAA and WAAODA

(Taken from Women Reaching Women brochure.)

* * * * *

SERVICES AVAILABLE

Here is a list of a few places for help:

- Displaced Homemaker Programs
- Women's Community
- Domestic Abuse Crisis Line
- Your County Social Service
- Lutheran Social Services
- Catholic Charities
- Children's Service Society of Wisconsin
- Narcotics Anonymous
- Gamblers Anonymous
- Tough Love
- Alcoholics Anonymous
- Alanon
- Alateen
- County Health Care Center
- Salvation Army
- Chemical Dependency Clinics and Hospitals
- Private Family Counseling Services
- Church (priest and ministers)

* * * * *

Health Coverage

One of the biggest strains today is the cost of adequate health care.

500,000 Wisconsin citizens have no health coverage at all.

Representative Dave Obey from Wisconsin's 7th District and Congressman Jim McDermott of Washington have introduced the Universal Health Coverage Act of 1990.

The bill would require every state to have in place by 1995 an operating program that provides basic health coverage for every person living in that state.

By January 1998, the Secretary of Health and Human Services would be required to evaluate the effectiveness of each state's approach and decide whether administration of the universal health coverage should be moved to the universal level.

States' plans would be judged on their cost effectiveness and special grants would be available to pilot projects that demonstrate effective ways to curtail cost.

* * * * *

PIVOT PROFILES

by Dorothy Rossing
Mineral Point, Wisconsin

Lately, a person I know keeps saying, "I am bored." These seem to be her favorite words. She is a busy person. Her appointment book is filled with places to go and things to do. She has many talents, attends an oil painting class every week, and her home is resplendent with beautiful, exotic plants. She walks her friendly, lovable little dog every day. How could she possibly be bored?

Many of us are in the same position. The world is full of bored people. We need a challenge. We need something to do we have never done before. There is no challenge in repeating yesterday. Each day is new; it can be interesting and exciting. We must not wait for someone to provide the challenge. We must challenge ourselves.

At the end of each day, it would be well to sit back and take a look at the things we achieved that day. Most of the time we will not be satisfied with the results. Then is the time to say, "Tomorrow will be different." "Tomorrow I will add another dimension to my life."

Yesterday I heard a lonely lady say, "You are the first person who has been kind to me today."

Don't be bored while walking the dog. Stop, look, and listen to all the delightful things along the way. Be kind to someone today. Boredom will slip away. In its place will come the knowledge that being friendly and helpful will open a new vista, a new awareness, and a new challenge.

The good, green earth beneath our feet,
The air we breathe, the food we eat,
Some work to do, a goal to win,
A hidden longing deep within
That spurs us on to bigger things,
and helps us meet what each day brings.
All these things and many more
Are things we should be thankful for...
And something else we should not forget,
That people we've known or heard of or met
By indirection have had a big part
In molding the thoughts of the mind and heart.
And so it's the people who are like you
That people like me should give thanks to.
For no one can live for himself alone
And no one can win just on his own.
Too bad there aren't a whole lot more
People like You to be thankful for!

Author Unknown

Northcentral Technical College

Career Services

MY PLAN OF ACTION (INDIVIDUAL PLAN OF ACTION)

Date: ______________

Any human being, anywhere, will blossom into a hundred unexpected talents and capabilities, simply by being given the opportunity to use them.

--Doris Lessing

MY EDUCATION/EMPLOYMENT GOALS

Short Term:

Long Term:

MY SPECIAL STRENGTHS, SKILLS, EXPERIENCES

MY SPECIAL AREAS OF CONCERN

STEPS TO REACH MY GOAL	PEOPLE WHO CAN HELP ME	TARGET DATE

____
Participant
Signature/date

____
Advisor
Signature/date

____
Phone No.

____
Phone No.

214

RMS.053, 8/29/91

COURSE COMPETENCIES

Define sexual harassment and describe how sex equity is treated in the learning environment.

- Describe how sexual harassment may impede the learning process.
- Modify the learning environment to promote sex equity and eliminate sexual harassment.
- Describe supportive services available through the school and community to provide for sex equity.
- Compare and/or contrast the effects of sexual harassment on students in two different situations.
- Describe the sex equity and sexual harassment problems faced by graduates in the labor market and how the graduates can (should) cope with the problems.

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Jean Kapinsky
Affirmative Action Officer

Jan Ternent
Sex Equity

OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. Arrange an appointment with the Affirmative Action Officer or Sex Equity case advisor to discuss specific areas of observation based on the course competencies and objectives which will help you create an awareness and sensitivity to the issues of sexual harassment and sex equity.
2. Share your findings with the course facilitator at the second progress/sharing meeting.

3. Read the following pages from the course manual:

D-1 to D-71

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DPI Publishes "Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education" D-63

Wisconsin Vocational Equity News D-65

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when:

I. Submission to the verbal or physical harassment is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment

II. Submission to or rejection of the verbal or physical harassment is used as a basis for employment decisions affecting such an individual.

III. The verbal or physical harassment has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

Northcentral Technical College
Wausau, Wisconsin

SECTION I

WISCONSIN LEGAL DEFINITIONS OF AND PENALTIES FOR SEXUAL ASSAULT, SEXUAL EXPLOITATION, AND HARASSMENT

940.225 SEXUAL ASSAULT

(1) First Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever does any of the following is guilty of a Class B felony:

(a) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without consent of that person and causes pregnancy or great bodily harm to that person.
(b) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without consent of that person by use or threat of use of a dangerous weapon or any article used or fashioned in a manner to lead the victim reasonably to believe it to be a dangerous weapon.
(c) Is aided or abetted by one or more other persons and has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without consent of that person by use or threat of force or violence.

(2) Second Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever does any of the following is guilty of a Class C felony:

(a) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without consent of that person by use or threat of force or violence.
(b) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without consent of that person and causes injury, illness, disease, or impairment of a sexual or reproductive organ, or mental anguish requiring psychiatric care for the victim.
(c) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with a person who suffers from a mental illness or deficiency which renders that person temporarily or permanently incapable of appraising the person's conduct, and the defendant knows of such condition.
(d) Has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with a person who the defendant knows is unconscious.
(f) Is aided or abetted by one or more other persons and has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with another person without the consent of that person.
(g) Is an employee of an inpatient facility or a state treatment facility and has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with a person who is a patient or resident of the facility.

(3) Third Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever has sexual intercourse with a person without the consent of that person is guilty of a Class D felony.

(3m) Fourth Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever has sexual contact with a person without the consent of that person is guilty of a Class A misdemeanor.

(4) Consent. "Consent," as used in this section, means words or overt actions by a person who is competent to give informed consent indicating a freely given agreement to have sexual intercourse or sexual contact. Consent is not an issue in alleged violations of sub. (2)(c), (d), and (g). The following persons are presumed incapable of consent but the presumption may be rebutted by competent evidence, subject to the provisions of s.972.11(2):

(b) A person suffering from a mental illness or defect which impairs capacity to appraise personal conduct.
(c) A person who is unconscious or for any other reason is physically unable to communicate unwillingness to an act.

(5) Definitions. In this section:

(a) "Inpatient facility" has the meaning designated in s.51.101(10).
(b) "Sexual contact" means any intentional touching by the complainant or defendant, either directly or through clothing by the use of any body part or object, of the complainant's or defendant's intimate parts if that intentional touching is either for the purpose of sexually degrading; or for the purpose of sexually humiliating the complainant or sexually arousing or gratifying the defendant or if the touching contains the elements of actual or attempted batter under s.940.19(1).
(c) "Sexual intercourse" includes the meaning assigned under s.939.22(36) as well as cunnilingus, fellatio or anal intercourse between persons or any other intrusion, however slight, of any part of a person's body or of an object into the genital or anal opening either by the defendant or upon the defendant's instruction. The emission of semen is not required.
(d) "State treatment facility" has the meaning designated in s.51.01(15).

(6) Marriage not a Bar to Prosecution. A defendant shall not be presumed to be incapable of violating this section because of marriage to the complainant.

(7) Death of Victim. This section applies whether a victim is dead or alive at the time of the sexual contact or sexual intercourse.

948.02 SEXUAL ASSAULT OF A CHILD

(1) First Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with a person who has not attained the age of 13 years is guilty of a Class B felony.

(2) Second Degree Sexual Assault. Whoever has sexual contact or sexual intercourse with a person who has not attained the age of 16 years is guilty of a Class C felony.

(3) Failure to Act. A person responsible for the welfare of a child who has not attained the age of 16 years is guilty of a Class C felony if that person has knowledge that another person intends to have, is having, or has had sexual intercourse or sexual contact with the child, is physically and emotionally capable of taking action which will prevent the intercourse or contact from taking place or being repeated, fails to take that action and the failure to act exposes the child to an unreasonable risk that intercourse or contact may occur between the child and the other person, or facilitates the intercourse or contact that does occur between that child and the other person.

(4) Marriage Not a Bar to Prosecution. A defendant shall not be presumed to be incapable of violating this section because of marriage to the complainant.

(5) Death of Victim. This section applies whether a victim is dead or alive at the time of the sexual contact or sexual intercourse.

940.22 SEXUAL EXPLOITATION BY THERAPIST; DUTY TO REPORT

(1) Definitions. In this section:

(a) "Department" means the department of regulation and licensing.
(b) "Physician" has the meaning designated in s.448.01(5).
(c) "Psychologist" means a person who practices psychology, as described in s.455.01(5).
(d) "Psychotherapy" has the meaning designated in s.455.01(6).
(e)"Record" means any document relating to the investigation, assessment, and disposition of a report under this section.
(f) "Reporter" means a therapist who reports suspected sexual contact between his or her patient or client and another therapist.
(g) "Sexual contact" has the meaning designated in s.940.225(5)(b).
(h) "Subject" means the therapist named in a report or record as being suspected of having sexual contact with a patient or client or who has been determined to have engaged in sexual contact with a patient or client.
(i) "Therapist" means a physician, psychologist, social worker, nurse, chemical dependency counselor, member of the clergy or other person, whether or not licensed by the state, who performs or purports to perform psychotherapy.

(2) Sexual Contact Prohibited. Any person who is or who holds himself or herself out to be a therapist and who intentionally has sexual contact with a patient or client during any ongoing therapist-patient or therapist-client relationship, regardless of whether it occurs during any treatment, consultation, interview or examination, is guilty of a Class D felony. Consent is not an issue in action under this subsection.

(3) Reports of Sexual Contact.

(a) If a therapist has reasonable cause to suspect that a patient or client he or she has seen in the course of professional duties is a victim of sexual contact by another therapist or a person who holds himself or herself out to be a therapist in violation of sub. (2), as soon thereafter as practicable the therapist shall ask the patient or client if he or she wants the therapist to make a report under this subsection. The therapist shall explain that the report need not identify the patient or client as the victim. If the patient or client wants the therapist to make the report, the patient or client shall provide the therapist with a written consent to the report and shall specify whether the patient's or client's identity will be included in the report.
(b) Within 30 days after a patient or client consents under par. (a) to a report, the therapist shall report the suspicion to:
1. The department, if the reporter believes the subject of the report is licensed by the state. The department shall promptly communicate the information to the appropriate examining board.

2. The district attorney for the county in which the sexual contact is likely, in the opinion of the reporter, to have occurred, if subd. 1 is not applicable.

(c) A report under this subsection shall contain only information that is necessary to identify the reporter and subject and to express the suspicion that sexual contact has occurred in violation of sub. (2). The report shall not contain information as to the identity of the alleged victim of sexual contact unless the patient or client requests under par. (a) that this information be included.

(d) Whoever intentionally violates this subsection by failing to report as required under pars. (a) to (c) is guilty of a Class A misdemeanor.

(4) Confidentiality of Reports and Records.

(a) All reports and records made from reports under sub. (3) and maintained by the department, examining boards, district attorneys and other persons, officials and institutions shall be confidential and are exempt from disclosure under s.19.35(1). Information regarding the identity of a victim or alleged victim of sexual contact by a therapist shall not be disclosed by a reporter or by persons who have received or have access to a report or record unless disclosure is consented to in writing by the victim or alleged victim. The report of information under sub. (3) and the disclosure of a report or record under this subsection does not violate any person's responsibility for maintaining the confidentiality of patient health care records, as defined in s.146.81(4) and as required under s.146.82. Reports and records may be disclosed only to appropriate staff of a district attorney or a law enforcement agency within this state for purposes of investigation or prosecution.

(b) 1. The department, a district attorney or an examining board within this state may exchange information from a report or record on the same subject.

2. If the department receives 2 or more reports under sub. (3) regarding the same subject, the department shall communicate information from the reports to the appropriate district attorneys and may inform the applicable reporters that another report has been received regarding the same subject.

3. If a district attorney receives 2 or more reports under sub. (3) regarding the same subject, the district attorney may inform the applicable reporters that another report has been received regarding the same subject.

4. After reporters receive the information under subd. 2 or 3, they may inform the applicable patients or clients that another report was received regarding the same subject.

(c) A person to whom a report or record is disclosed under this subsection may not further disclose it, except to the persons and for the purposes specified in this section.

(d) Whoever intentionally violates this subsection, or permits or encourages the unauthorized dissemination or use of information contained in reports and records made under this section, is guilty of a Class A misdemeanor.

(5) Immunity From Liability. Any person or institution participating in good faith in the making of a report or record under this section is immune from any civil or criminal liability that results by reason of the action. For the purpose of any civil or criminal action or proceeding, any person reporting under this section is presumed to be acting in good faith. The immunity provided under this subsection does not apply to liability resulting from sexual contact by a therapist with a patient or client.

947.013 HARASSMENT

(1) Whoever, with intent to harass or intimidate another person, does any of the following is subject to a Class B forfeiture:

(a) Strikes, shoves, kicks or otherwise subjects the person to physical contact or attempts or threatens to do the same.
(b) Engages in a course of conduct or repeatedly commits acts which harass or intimidate the person and which serve no legitimate purpose.

(2) This section does not prohibit any person from participating in lawful conduct in labor disputes under s.103.53.

PENALTIES

Penalties for felonies and misdemeanors for violations of the above listed Wisconsin Statutes are as follows:

(a) For a Class B felony, imprisonment not to exceed 20 years.

(b) For a Class C felony, a fine not to exceed $10,000 or imprisonment not to exceed 10 years, or both.

(c) For a Class D felony, a fine not to exceed $10,000 or imprisonment not to exceed 5 years, or both.

(d) For a Class A misdemeanor, a fine not to exceed $10,000 or imprisonment not to exceed 9 months, or both.

SECTION II

SEXUAL ASSAULTS IN WISCONSIN

In Wisconsin, the number of actual assaults reported in 1988 was 5,110. Of those, 2,617 were first degree, and 1,803 were second degree.

The majority of all sexual assaults were perpetrated by someone known to the victim.

For single-offender rapes, 56 percent of offenders were friends or acquaintances of the victim, 19 percent were family members. Of multiple offender rapes, 42 percent of the offenders were friends or acquaintances of the victim. Over one-half, 59 percent, of all rapes were committed by an offender known to the victim, in either the victim's or offender's home.

Of single-offender nonrape sexual assaults, 42 percent of offenders were friends or acquaintances of the victim; 31 percent were family members. Of multiple-offender assaults, 62 percent of the offenders were friends or acquaintances of the victim. Of all nonrape assaults, 61 percent were committed by an offender known to the victim, in either the victim's or offender's home.

1988 Sexual Assault Statistics For
Counties in the Northcentral Technical College District

County	First Degree	Second Degree	Third Degree	Fourth Degree	Not Specified	1988 Total
Clark	34	10	0	2	0	46
Langlade	12	7	0	1	2	22
Lincoln	3	1	0	0	0	4
Marathon	75	16	0	8	1	100
Menominee	2	0	0	0	0	2
Portage	16	17	2	4	0	39
Price	8	6	0	4	0	18
Shawano	6	11	0	3	0	20
Taylor	0	5	0	1	0	6
Waupaca	5	9	1	2	2	19
All Counties	161	82	3	25	5	276

SECTION III

Chapter 950

RIGHTS OF VICTIMS AND WITNESSES OF CRIME

950.01 LEGISLATIVE INTENT

In recognition of the civic and moral duty of victims and witnesses of crime to fully and voluntarily cooperate with law enforcement and prosecutorial agencies, and in further recognition of the continuing importance of such citizen cooperation to state and local law enforcement efforts and the general effectiveness and well-being of the criminal justice system of this state, the legislature declares its intent, in this chapter, to ensure that all victims and witnesses of crime are treated with dignity, respect, courtesy, and sensitivity; and that the rights extended in this chapter to victims and witnesses of crime are honored and protected by law enforcement agencies, prosecutors, and judges in a manner no less vigorous than the protections afforded criminal defendants.

950.02 DEFINITIONS

In this chapter:

(1) "Child" means a person who is less than 18 years of age.

(1m) "Crime" means an act committed in this state which, if committed by a competent adult, would constitute a crime, as defined in s.939.12, or which, if committed by a responsible child, would constitute a delinquent act under ch. 48.

(2) "Department" means the department of justice.

(3) "Family member" means spouse, child, sibling, parent, or legal guardian.

(4) "Victim" means a person against whom a crime has been committed.

(5) "Witness" means any person who has been or is expected to be summoned to testify for the prosecution, or who by reason of having relevant information is subject to call or likely to be called as a witness for the prosecution, whether or not any action or proceeding has yet been commenced.

950.03 ELIGIBILITY OF VICTIMS

A victim has the rights and is eligible for the services under this chapter only if the victim reported the crime to law enforcement authorities within 5 days of its occurrence or discovery, unless he or she had a reasonable excuse not to do so.

950.04 BASIC BILL OF RIGHTS FOR VICTIMS AND WITNESSES

Victims and witnesses of crimes have the following rights:

(1) To be informed by local law enforcement agencies and the district attorney of the final disposition of the case. If the crime charged is a felony or

is specified in ch. 940, the victim shall be notified whenever the defendant or perpetrator is released from custody. The victim shall be notified of a pardon application by the governor under s.304.09(3).

(2) To be notified that a court proceeding to which they have been subpoenaed will not go on as scheduled, in order to save the person an unnecessary trip to court.

(2m) To have the court provided with information pertaining to the economic, physical, and psychological effect of the crime upon the victim of a felony and have the information considered by the court.

(3) To receive protection from harm and threats of harm arising out of their cooperation with law enforcement and prosecution efforts, and to be provided with information as to the level of protection available.

(4) To be informed of financial assistance and other social services available as a result of being a witness or a victim of a crime, including information on how to apply for the assistance and services.

(5) To be informed of the procedure to be followed in order to apply for and receive any witness fee to which they are entitled.

(6) To be provided, whenever possible, a secure waiting area during court proceedings that does not require them to be in close proximity to defendants and families and friends of defendants.

(7) To have any stolen or other personal property expeditiously returned by law enforcement agencies when no longer needed as evidence. If feasible, all such property, except weapons, currency, contraband, property subject to evidentiary analysis, and property the ownership of which is disputed, shall be returned to the person within 10 days of being taken.

(8) To be provided with appropriate employer intercession services to ensure that employers of victims and witnesses will cooperate with the criminal justice process and the juvenile justice process in order to minimize an employee's loss of pay and other benefits resulting from court appearances.

(9) To be entitled to a speedy disposition of the case in which they are involved as a victim or witness in order to minimize the length of time they must endure the stress of their responsibilities in connection with the matter.

(10) To have the family members of all homicide victims afforded all of the rights under subs. (1) to (4) and (6) to (9) and analogous services under s.950.05, whether or not they are witnesses in any criminal proceedings.

950.045 VICTIMS; APPLICATION FOR PAROLE OR PARDON

Victims of crimes have the right to provide written statements concerning parole applications under s.304.06(1)(e) and to provide written statements concerning pardon applications under s.304.10(2).

950.05 SERVICES FOR VICTIMS AND WITNESSES

(1) Counties are encouraged to provide victims and witnesses the following services:

(a) Court appearance notification services, including cancellation of appearances.
(b) Victim compensation and social services referrals, including witness fee collection, case-by-case referrals, and public information.
(c) Escort and other transportation services related to the investigation or prosecution of the case, if necessary or advisable.
(d) Case progress notification services which may be combined with services under par. (a).
(dm) Assistance in providing the court with information pertaining to the economic, physical, and psychological effect of the crime upon the victim of a felony.
(e) Employer intercession services.
(f) Expedited return of property services.
(g) Protection services.
(h) Family support services, including child and other dependent care services.
(i) Waiting facilities.

(2) Counties are encouraged to assist victims in enforcing their rights under s.950.045.

950.055 CHILD VICTIMS AND WITNESSES; RIGHTS AND SERVICES

(1) Legislative Intent. The legislature finds that it is necessary to provide child victims and witnesses with additional consideration and different treatment than that usually afforded to adults. The legislature intends, in this section, to provide these children with additional rights and protections during their involvement with the criminal justice or juvenile justice system. The legislature urges the news media to use restraint in revealing the identity of child victims or witnesses, especially in sensitive cases.

(2) Additional Services. In addition to all rights afforded to victims and witnesses under s.950.04 and services provided under s.950.05, counties are encouraged to provide the following additional services on behalf of children who are involved in criminal or delinquency proceedings as victims or witnesses:

(a) Explanations, in language understood by the child, of all legal proceedings in which the child will be involved.
(b) Advice to the judge, when appropriate and as a friend of the court, regarding the child's ability to understand proceedings and questions. The services may include providing assistance in determinations concerning the taking of videotaped depositions under s.908.08 or 967.04(7) and (8) and the duty to expedite proceedings under s.971.105.
(c) Advice to the district attorney concerning the ability of a child witness to cooperate with the prosecution and the potential effects of the proceedings on the child.
(d) Information about and referrals to appropriate social services programs to assist the child and the child's family in coping with the emotional impact of the crime and the subsequent proceedings in which the child is involved.

(3) Program Responsibility. In each county, the county board is responsible for the enforcement of rights and the provision of services under this section. A county may seek reimbursement for services provided under this section as part of its program plan submitted to the department under s.950.06. To the extent possible, counties shall utilize volunteers and existing public resources for the provision of these services.

950.06 RESPONSIBILITY FOR RIGHTS AND SERVICES

(1) In each county, the county board is responsible for the enforcement of rights under s.950.04 and the provision of services under s.950.05. A county board may decide to discontinue enforcing the rights under s.950.04 and the provision of services under s.950.05 and the only penalty shall be the loss of reimbursement under sub. (2).

(2) The costs of enforcing rights under s.950.04 and providing services under s.950.05 shall be paid for by the county, but the county is eligible to receive reimbursement from the state for the costs incurred in providing services under s.950.05. For costs incurred on or after January 1, 1982, the county is eligible to receive funding from the state for not more than 90% of the costs incurred in providing services under s.950.05. The department shall determine the level of services for which a county may be reimbursed. The county board shall file a claim for reimbursement with the department. The department shall reimburse the counties from the appropriations under s.20.455(5)(c) and (g) on a semiannual basis for services provided. If a county has a program plan approved after July 2, 1983, the department may reimburse the county only for services provided on or after January 1, 1984.

(2m) Notwithstanding subs. (1) and (2), the county is not responsible for providing or paying for the notification of pardon application described under s.950.04(1).

(3) The county board shall provide for the implementation of the county's plan under sub. (4). Two or more counties may submit a joint plan under sub. (4).

(4) If the county seeks reimbursement under sub. (2), the county board shall submit a program plan to the department under sub. (2) only if the department has approved the plan. The program plan shall describe the level of services to victims and witnesses that the county intends to provide; the personnel or agencies responsible for related administrative programs and individual services; proposed staffing for the program; proposed education, training and experience requirements for program staff and the staff of agencies providing related administrative programs and individual services; the county's budget for implementing the program and other information the department determines to be necessary for its review. The plan shall provide that the district attorney, local law enforcement agencies and the courts shall make available to the person or agency responsible for administering the program all reports or files, except reports or files which are required by statute to be kept confidential, if the reports or files are required by the person or agency to carry out program responsibilities. In August of each year, the county board shall submit a report to the department on the operation of the plan, including the enforcement of rights under s.950.04 and the provision of services under s.950.05.

(5) The department shall review and approve the implementation and operation of programs and the annual reports under this section. The department may suspend or terminate reimbursement under s.20.455(5)(c) and (g) if the county fails to comply with its duties under this section. The department shall promulgate rules under ch. 227 for implementing and administering county programs approved under this section.

950.07 INTERGOVERNMENTAL COOPERATION

The county board, district attorney, local law enforcement agencies, local social service agencies, and courts shall all cooperate with each other to ensure that victims and witnesses of crimes receive the rights and services to which they are entitled under this chapter.

AGENCIES OFFERING ASSISTANCE TO VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT/ABUSE AND WORKSHOPS ON PROTECTIVE BEHAVIORS

Avail Inc.
Antigo
623-5177--office
623-5767--crisis line (24 hrs/day)

Children's Service Society of Wisconsin
Wausau
848-1457

Domestic Abuse Crisis Line
842-7323

Family Counseling Service of Wausau
842-3346 or 842-3343

Langlade County Department of Social Services
Antigo
627-6258

Langlade County Sheriff
627-6278

Lutheran Social Services
Wausau
842-5577

Marathon County Department of Social Services
848-1381

Marathon County Sheriff
847-0250 (8 a.m. - 4 p.m.)
847-0356 (after 4 p.m.)

Mid-Wisconsin Psychotherapy
Stevens Point
344-2016

Price County Department of Social Services
339-2158

Price County Sheriff
339-3011

Taylor County Citizens Against Domestic Abuse
748-3131

Taylor County Human Services Center
748-3332

Taylor County Sheriff
748-2200

Women's Community
Wausau
848-5663

PEER HARASSMENT
Hassles for Women on Campus

"It . . . [is] not merely a matter of private significance when fraternity members throw bottles or beer cans, shout obscenities at passers-by or intimidate women students who are walking to a college function . . . [E]ven if only a minority of female students were offended, frightened, or shouted at when passing by fraternity row, they should not have to endure this sort of treatment as the price of attending . . . [name of college]."[1]

"The vast majority of college men, fraternity men among them, do not engage in these extreme forms of sexual abuse and coercion. But the community tolerance for those who do, and also for those who indulge in less violent but still degrading forms of sexist behavior, remains widespread. Students still openly defend the shouting of ugly sexist epithets on the grounds of freedom of speech, and openly argue that victims of sexual violence who have come forward were either asking for it or lying."[2]

What Is Peer Harassment?

Attending college is more than an intellectual experience; it has an important social component, especially for students who live on campus. The image of young men and women living in a collegial, intellectual atmosphere is an appealing one. At best, college can provide the opportunity to further the social growth of students, with men and women learning how to get along with peers and how to handle differences of race, ethnicity, and gender. This "social learning" has been labeled "co-curricular," indicating that it is equal in value to the intellectual learning that takes place on campus.

Values are an important part of education, and colleges communicate values in many different ways, not just through their curricula. The basic values of liberal education--especially respect for other individuals and the ability to treat others in a civil manner--unfortunately are not always expressed in the relationships between men and women on campus.

There is a darker side to campus life, often unnoticed. If acknowledged, it is too often brushed off as "normal" behavior. This darker side is peer harassment, particularly the harassment of female students by male students. For too many students, relationships between men and women are not always positive. Too many women experience hostility, anger, and sometimes even violence from male students. For example:

- A group of men regularly sit at a table facing a cafeteria line. As women go through the line, the men loudly discuss the women's sexual attributes and hold up signs with numbers from one to ten "rating" each woman. As a result, many women skip meals or avoid the cafeteria.
- A fraternity pledge approaches a young woman he has never met and bites her on the breast--a practice called "sharking."
- A group of men surround a woman and simultaneously expose themselves.

At one end of the scale, peer harassment consists of so-called "teasing," sexual innuendos, and bullying of a sexist nature, both physical and verbal. At the other end of the scale is explicit sexual harassment up to and including sexual aggression.[3]

A picture is emerging of too many young men on campus engaging in behaviors that can best be described as emotional and psychological harassment. Such behaviors, which are often invasive and disrespectful, can poison the college experience for women. Although some of these behaviors may at first glance appear to be individual, unrelated acts, they are instead part of a pattern representing widespread group behavior.

Because little has been written about this subject, we depended heavily in this report on our own extensive files and on anecdotal materials gathered from numerous campus reports and campus newspapers. Additionally, innumerable conversations with students, faculty members, and administrators at a large number of campuses confirm the existence of peer harassment on campus and provide additional examples. The incidents described in this report were selected not for their uniqueness but because they typify the many kinds of behaviors that occur. Many of the incidents described are ugly and disgusting. We have included them because they do happen on campus, and when they do, they affect women students. Indeed, they profoundly affect the atmosphere in which learning is supposed to occur.

These behaviors are not universal, nor do they happen all the time. Certainly not all college men bother or harass women students, and many women do not experience these incidents. While both sexes can be harassed, females make up the majority of peer harassment victims.[4] Although women are harassed by men primarily because they are women, the activities involved are not always of a sexual nature. Additionally, all women may not recognize such behaviors as harassment. When these experiences occur again and again, however, and when they are unnoticed, ignored, or condoned by peers and even by some college officials, men and women alike receive the message that women can be treated with disdain and lack of respect and it does not matter to anyone.

Harassment can happen at all types of schools--large and small, public and private, religiously affiliated, Ivy League, and community colleges. Although some institutions may have fewer instances of peer harassment than others, no institution is immune. Even one incident is too many for the person being victimized. It makes coeducation less than equal for both men and women.[5]

Although many administrators are responsive to complaints about peer harassment, some campus personnel are not aware that peer harassment is a problem. Others, while acknowledging that "distasteful" or "inappropriate" behavior has occurred, may nevertheless feel that it is a "personal" or "individual" problem to be handled by the woman or women involved. Nevertheless, campus administrators on the whole are increasingly concerned about harassment even though they may be unsure as to the best way to deal with it. To handle these situations effectively, administrators need to know the parameters of the problem, what they are dealing with, and ways to prevent bad situations--information that this report provides.

How Prevalent Is Peer Harassment?

Only a few colleges and universities have surveyed their students to determine the extent of the problem. In 1986, Cornell University surveyed women students and found that 78 percent of those responding had experienced sexist comments and 68 percent had received unwelcome attention from their male peers. Most of the incidents (89 percent) involved individual males; 11 percent involved groups of males.[6]

In another study, at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 92 percent of the women and 57 percent of the men had experienced at least one form of unwanted sexual attention and had reacted negatively to it.[7] At the University of Rhode Island, 70 percent of the women surveyed reported having been sexually insulted by a man.[8]

Additionally, several institutional studies of campus fraternities have documented widespread harassment of women students by fraternity members.[9]

Peer harassment does not appear to be new. Since little data have been recorded in the past, it is impossible to know whether peer harassment is increasing. There may be more publicity and awareness now about peer harassment than in the past, when such behavior was often dismissed with "boys will be boys." While it is clear that not all male students harass their female peers, it is equally clear that some of them do.

What Is the Impact of Peer Harassment?

Many campuses are experiencing an increase in racial tension and bigotry. In some ways, the situation with women is comparable--some men are treating women badly, sometimes even abusively. It may not be an overstatement to characterize many of these behaviors as "sexual bigotry." Just as racial slurs, epithets, and other forms of harassment hurt minorities, sexual slurs, epithets, and other forms of harassment hurt women.

The effects of peer harassment are wide ranging:

- for women. Peer harassment, like faculty harassment, sends the message that a woman is not equal to a man. She is an object of scorn or derision. She is not being taken seriously as a person; she is not valued. Even when a woman does not experience peer harassment herself but knows it is happening to others, she receives the same message--a message that can weaken a woman's self-esteem or self-confidence and can undermine her academic, vocational, and personal goals. Women may feel uncomfortable and annoyed; they may feel embarrassed, humiliated, or degraded; they may feel disgusted; they may feel helpless and unsure how to respond. At times they may feel angry, insulted, and fearful of violence. They may also feel guilty or blame themselves.

The cumulative effect of repeated harassment can be devastating. It reinforces self-doubt and can affect a woman's entire academic experience. Some women who experience the more severe forms of harassment may even find it difficult to trust or have friendships with men. When harassment comes primarily from classmates in a particular field, some women may change classes or majors, or drop out altogether.

Many women are unaware that others have had similar experiences and thus believe that their own experience is unique and personal. Women typically do not report harassment unless it is unusually severe, and even then they may not report it. Women often feel that nothing will be done or that no one will take their complaints seriously. In some instances, women--while not condoning the harassment--may accept it as "the way things are" and therefore not view it as something worthy of complaint. Besides these psychological effects, peer harassment can cause physical symptoms such as headaches, stomachaches, and pinched nerves in the neck--school can become, literally, a pain in the neck.

- for men. When men harass women with impunity, the implication is that women are fair game and that such harassment is acceptable behavior. For some men, harassment becomes an approved way of bonding with other males at the expense of women. Pervasive harassment may make it difficult for a man to form a healthy relationship with a woman because it is hard to be committed to someone for whom he and others have little respect. When men view women as objects to be demeaned, men find it difficult to relate to women as equal human beings--much less as friends or potential romantic partners.

Men who do not respect women as individuals and do not take women seriously, moreover, are not well prepared for the working world, where women are increasingly likely to be their colleagues.

- for the institution. Some schools have had adverse publicity about individual incidents of peer harassment. One university president had difficulty lobbying state legislators for funds because the legislators primarily wanted to talk about a recent, highly publicized fraternity incident on that institution's campus. Alumni may be less willing to contribute when peer harassment occurs and is not handled well.

The knowledge of harassment incidents, whether publicized or simply communicated by word of mouth, may lead to a decrease in applications from women, as seems to have happened in at least one prestigious university.

Increasingly, women consider the climate for women students as a factor in selecting a school. Student guides at Princeton University noted that high school students on campus often ask "what it's like to be woman at Princeton."[10] Harassment also can affect student retention: If an institution or department is perceived as having a hostile atmosphere, women may decide to transfer.

Examples of Peer Harassment

Although some of the examples that follow may seem extreme, they are all actual incidents. Many sexual epithets, slurs, and graffiti are too obscene to print as examples. The behaviors themselves vary over a wide continuum and can occur wherever young men and women are together. A large number of harassment incidents occur in coed dormitories, in classrooms, at parties, at campus events, and outdoors on campus grounds.[11] They happen to women across all majors but may be worse for women in traditionally male fields.

The various kinds of peer harassment do not fall into distinct categories; many overlap. The fact that some of these behaviors have been given nicknames (for example, "sharking") suggests that they are common occurrences at different schools across the country.

Group Harassment

Some of the most serious forms of peer harassment involve groups of men. Men often do things in groups that they would not do alone.[12] In some instances, they may be carried away with a situation and not think about what they are doing. At an early age many boys learn and practice their masculine identity by using girls as a "negative reference group"; that is, boys denigrate girls and their activities in order to feel like "real boys."[13] As adults, they also may be afraid of appearing concerned about women's feelings and not being "macho." They may want to be accepted by other men. Perhaps more importantly, they may be fearful of losing the group's approval--they do not want the group to turn on them if they refuse to go along with it.

Whatever the reasons, when men are in a group they may say or do hostile things to women that they might not otherwise do as individuals. When men outnumber women, such as at fraternity houses, stadiums, and some parties--and especially if alcohol is involved--incidents of harassment are more likely to occur. Group harassment incidents include:

- "scoping," which usually involves describing and rating women's attractiveness on a scale of one to ten. Most commonly, women passing by groups of men may find their sexual attributes loudly discussed and rated by the men.
- yelling, whistling, and shouting obscenities at women who walk by fraternity houses or other places where men gather. Many men believe that women view such activities as flattering.
- running women off sidewalks. At one small college, men walk two to three abreast on narrow sidewalks. They separate and allow men to walk by them but expect women to get out of the way; if the women do not, the men walk into them.
- "elephant walk," wherein men expose their penises and simultaneously pull out their pants pockets to resemble the elephant's trunk and ears.
- "mooning," whereby men pull down their pants and show their buttocks aggressively. This is often done by a group of men to one or more women.
- intimidating a woman by surrounding her, demanding that she bare her breasts, and not allowing her to leave until she complies.
- creating a disturbance outside of residence halls. At one university during examination week several hundred men gather at night outside a dormitory, chanting incessantly, "We want tits! We want tits!" They refuse to leave (and let the women continue studying) until one of the women finally bares her breasts.
- vandalizing sororities. A student at a large eastern university described her experience: "Do you have any idea how frightening it is to wake up to the sound of breaking glass? Or how frightening it is to have somebody beating on your doors and windows for hours? We've even had our doors kicked in . . . We've had to spend a couple of thousand dollars because of this kind of incident."[14]
- harassing women who support women's rights. In one incident a group of men yelled obscenities and threw beer at women rallying against date rape on campus.
- tying up a woman and molesting her.[15]

Men in Fraternities

The fraternity selects a brother to perform a ritual--the "flying blue max"--at a fraternity-sorority activity. The brothers grab a woman and position her so that the preselected male can bite her on the buttocks.

Fraternities are frequently involved in much of the peer harassment that occurs on campuses. Many of the examples described earlier also involve fraternities. Some of the following examples take place when men are being hazed as part of their initiation into a fraternity or women are being hazed as part of their initiation into a sorority. Many fraternity rituals have undercurrents of violence toward members and toward women and often have highly sexualized components in which women are portrayed primarily in a sexual capacity. On some campuses, "little sister" rushes are viewed as providing "new meat" for fraternity members.

Fraternity harassment can be mild--taking new sorority pledges to the fraternity house to be weighed, insulting new sorority pledges or calling pledges names usually related to their physical attributes. One fraternity ritual involves singing obscene songs to a sorority and then mooning the women. At other times, fraternity actions are not so mild--at one school, fraternity brothers bit new sorority pledges on their buttocks so severely that several needed medical attention.

Fraternities often sponsor events that result in the harassment and degradation of women or define women primarily as sexual objects. Fraternity parties often advertise sexual themes, as in "Come for a lei on Hawaiian night." On one campus, a fraternity "scavenger hunt" list included "Xerox copies of female genitalia" and "women's underwear and related objects," each of which was assigned a point value. At one party, the face of a female mannequin was smashed and red paint was smeared on the face and breasts to resemble blood. The mannequin was hung from the balcony as a decoration. Even more seriously, 80 to 90 percent of reported campus gang rapes occur at fraternity parties.[18]

Men at Stadiums

Three men were on their way to a football game. Two of the men were urging the third to drink more beer. Here is their conversation as reported by an administrator's spouse:

"C'mon. You gotta drink more."
"No more, no more."
"Yeah, man, you gotta puke at the game."
"Yeah, man, you gotta puke on some bitch."

Harassment often occurs in stadiums and fieldhouses before, during, or after football or basketball games. Some of these activities, however, can also occur elsewhere. Stadium harassment includes such activities as "body passing" in which a woman--sometimes willingly, but often unwillingly--is passed from bleacher to bleacher; the men may undress her, and even rip off her clothes; she may be repeatedly fondled, and/or bitten along the way. It also includes pulling down women's shorts, slacks, or skirts; "sharking" (biting); asking a woman, "Can I write my name on your shorts?" and then biting her on the buttocks; throwing or spilling beer on women; or vomiting on women.

Sexual Harassment

"An upperclass [student] from my living group kept trying to make sexual advances--trying to take my clothes off. I told him that his advances were not desired. It angered me that he did not respect my answer--I felt worthless, helpless."

In general, sexual harassment involves unwanted sexual attention. Some men deliberately intend to harm or annoy women. Others may think that women are flattered by any kind of sexual attention. They presume that women like sexual attention, especially if the women do not indicate displeasure. They may even feel that women want or expect this type of behavior. Thus, some men feel they are excused from responsibility; if a woman does not like it, it is her fault because she does not protest.

All sexual attention is not sexual harassment. Certainly whenever men and women are together, sexual attraction is possible and people will express their attraction. Unwanted sexual attention is experienced by women as harassment when personal boundaries are crossed. What may be appropriate in a continuing relationship is inappropriate coming from a stranger or new acquaintance.

Unwanted sexual attention may take many forms:

- Interpersonal harassment:
  - inappropriate personal remarks such as comments about a woman's body or sexual activities. Women are uncomfortable when men, especially strangers or men they do not know well, make comments about their sexuality: "I was helping out a [dorm] party by serving drinks behind a counter. A male student I had never seen before came up to me and said that I have nice breasts. I told him to go away but he continued. Finally he left. I felt offended, humiliated, and insulted." Inappropriate personal comments are not perceived as compliments but make women feel uncomfortable because they have been depersonalized--reduced to being merely a sexual object without individuality or humanity.
  - unwanted touching or kissing.[17] Women students have been hugged or kissed and have had their breasts grabbed or fondled, especially at parties.
  - persistent sexual attention, especially when it continues after a clear indication of nonreciprocity of feelings. A man, for example, may repeatedly ask a women for a date though she has already declined.
  - requests for sexual activity. At one campus, men shout sexual invitations through women's open windows on the ground floor of a dormitory. Male students on another campus forced a female student against a building and attempted to pressure her to date a friend. When she did not agree, they made sexually offensive remarks to her and loudly ridiculed her after she broke free.

  - sexual bantering and sexual jokes, including leaving obscene messages on computers for women to discover when they use the computers in class and depositing sexual paraphernalia in women's mailboxes or in front of their doors.

  - giving women pornographic materials--leaving them on a woman's desk, sending them by mail, or slipping them under the door to a woman's room.

- Sexually demeaning climate or atmosphere:

  - sexist posters and pictures in places where women will see them.[18] These convey the message that women are primarily viewed by men as sexual objects rather than individual beings.

  - sexist graffiti and bumper stickers. One popular bumper sticker says "No fat chicks." At one school a poster--also saying "no fat chicks"--was put on the front door of a fraternity house prior to a party. Obscene graffiti, along with racist and anti-Semitic remarks, often appear in library carrels and other public places. Often these graffiti remain in place for years, offending several generations of students.

  - sexist advertisements for campus events. At one prestigious school, campus posters advertising a picnic said, "Look, son, if you're agonizin', I know a couple of girls . . ."

  - pseudo-surveys about sexual activities. These have been distributed in dormitories, fraternities, and sometimes published in campus newspapers. The more frequent the sexual activity, the higher the score. Extra points are given for having raped a woman. People with low scores are labeled prudes.

  - social activities focusing on women's sexuality. Some student-sponsored events demean women by portraying them primarily as sexual beings: wet T-shirt contests and X-rated and pornographic movies used as fund-raisers, for example. These events also convey the message that women are not valued as individuals.

  - "petty" hostility toward women. This can take many forms such as throwing things at women, pouring drinks over women's heads or on their breasts, heckling women as they enter a room or lounge, and making obscene and other sexually tinged remarks.

Academic Harassment

In one class, when a female student raised an issue concerning women, several male students groaned and booed. The woman did not participate again in that class.

Women's classroom participation is often denigrated. Male students may interrupt women frequently, often with personal or irrelevant--not

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substantive--remarks.[19] Men may dominate a class and discourage women from participating. They may ridicule women when they do speak, thus discouraging or intimidating them from participating. Women may find themselves treated like "dates" rather than colleagues: One women, much to her surprise, heard herself described as the "territory" of her male fieldwork partner. Women's ambitions or interests in traditionally male areas (such as science) may be belittled or disparaged: "You came here only to get married."

Sometimes harassment is less overt: Men may simply frown or groan when some women speak in class, especially if the women are very bright and assertive. Sometimes male students hiss when some women speak in class. Despite academe's traditional view that the classroom is an open place to discuss all ideas, some women are fearful of raising women's issues in class because of the hostility they may face from male students (and sometimes from faculty members as well). Faculty members do not always intervene, thus inadvertently conveying the message that the behavior of the men is acceptable.[20]

"Joking"

"Men put women on pedestals so they can look up their dresses."

So goes a joke heard on one campus. Joking is a time-honored way to mask hostility--cruelty by caricature. Almost all of the jokes told about women are jokes which, at best, cast women in a poor light or, at worst, degrade them. Women feel uncomfortable, embarrassed, and angry, yet when they protest this kind of humor, they are likely to be asked, "What's wrong, can't you take a joke?" Thus, the person being harassed, rather than the harasser, is made to feel at fault. Women are left with very little recourse; no one wants to be accused of lacking a sense of humor. The problem is that peer harassment is no joke.

"JAP" jokes describing the stereotyped "Jewish American Princess" are frequently told on some campuses. An example: "What does a JAP make for dinner? Reservations." Many people, including, sometimes, Jewish women themselves, feel free to tell "JAP" jokes. The fact that the victims tell the jokes may indicate unconscious self-contempt based on accepting the stereotypes implied in the jokes. Women may also tell these jokes as a way of saying, "I'm not like that; I'm different."

Jokes about rape are not uncommon. The threat of rape is sometimes used as a way to intimidate women:

- At one university a rape occurred in dorm room 436. Subsequently, some fraternity members would call out to women walking by, "Let's do a 436 on her."
- In many classes, when rape is mentioned some male students laugh.

Pestering and Street Harassment

Many women students (as well as women faculty members) avoid a particular supermarket even though it is the closest to the campus. There is a fraternity house on either side and one across the street. As women enter and leave the market, the fraternity brothers make obscene remarks and generally harass the women.

Pestering covers a variety of behaviors such as teasing and taunting, sending women insulting letters (at one school a number of women were sent anonymous letters telling each that she had been voted one of the ten ugliest women on campus); or ridiculing activities in which women are involved (this is particularly prevalent in sports). On one campus, a male student walked into a number of rooms in a women's residence hall late at night, shouted obscenities at the women, and ran out.

Street harassment involves individual men (or men in groups) who whistle, make sexual comments or slurs, issue sexual invitations, or yell obscenities at one or more women passersby. Many men believe that women are pleased by such behavior, although most women report annoyance and irritation.

Men often harass those participating in "Take Back the Night" marches--both women and the men marching with them. During one "Take Back the Night" march, a young man mooned the marchers. University officials contemplated expulsion until it was pointed out that at the same university, men who had raped women were not expelled. At a "Take Back the Night" march at another university (after a fraternity gang-rape incident), when the women marched along the campus fraternity row, the men taunted the marchers with chants of "Gang rape, gang rape," "Let's rape her," and "I'll take that one."[21]

Women Colluding

Why do some women participate in wet T-shirt contests or allow beer to be poured on their breasts? Why do they sometimes participate in their own victimization and thus help support an inhospitable atmosphere on campus? There are no easy answers to these questions. Not all women feel uncomfortable or annoyed when these activities occur. Indeed, some women cannot understand why others do not like such behavior.

Some young women may mistake some forms of harassment for flattery. For example, when men yell obscenities at them or tell them sexist jokes, women may feel more desirable and complimented because they become the center of attention. Some women may disagree with or rebel against feminist ideals. They want to go back to a more "romantic" time when men "took care of" women and women could enjoy being sex objects. Others want to be considered "good sports" and able to "take a joke." Some women, like some men, believe that this is the way of men, that the behavior is normal--that this is the way to have a "good time" and be accepted by the group.

Some women, especially those involved in sororities, may feel that they will be ostracized if they do not go along with demeaning fraternity/sorority activities. They want to be liked by men and other women and are afraid to antagonize them by disagreeing or withdrawing from the activity. Furthermore, some are afraid to report these activities because they fear retaliation. Indeed, these fears are often justified; some women who have complained about harassing activities have had obscenities shouted at them and have been otherwise harassed.

Harassment often escalates when it is tolerated, encouraged, or ignored. Sometimes women who go along with a little harassment may find that the harassment increases. Initially they like the behavior, but then it escalates to a point where they become uncomfortable.

Some women do not collude in the sense of actively going along with harassment but instead do nothing about it. They may feel helpless or not know how to say that they do not like the behavior. They do not report incidents of harassment because they feel that even if they do report such incidents, no action will be taken against the harasser(s)--especially because it often will be her word against his. Women may also worry about loss of privacy.

Women who inadvertently or knowingly participate in their own victimization or that of others help perpetuate a climate conducive to peer harassment.

Harassment Against Special Groups of Women

Although many women are targets of peer harassment, some groups of women tend to be singled out more often than others.

On some campuses, minority women are victims of harassment because of their sex and their color. When minority women are harassed, sexual and racial anger may be so fused that it is difficult to tell whether the harassment is sexual or racial. Often it is both.

- Black women have been openly taunted with the cry of "Black meat."
- Hispanic women are also often sexually teased and taunted.
- Among some fraternity men, a man is not considered a man until he has slept with a Black or Hispanic woman.
- A white fraternity had two Black women strippers at one of its parties, thus offending many Blacks on campus.
- A white male shouted sexual and racial remarks at a Black woman student who was walking by a men's residence hall.

Because of fantasies, myths, and stereotypes that may portray minority women as "exotic/erotic" or sexually active, these women may be more likely than others to be subjected to harassment focusing on their sexuality.

Asian-American women have been teased when their grades are not perfect. On some campuses, men have said to Asian-American women, "Come play Platoon with me." (This is a reference to the movie Platoon in which Asian women were raped.)

A growing number of Jewish women are being harassed on campus.[22] They have been stereotyped as wealthy and spoiled and given the label "JAP"--Jewish American Princess. While "JAP" jokes are not a recent phenomenon, these jokes recently have become uglier. ("What do you call forty-nine JAPs floating face down in the river?" A beginning.) "JAP" slogans and obscene graffiti coupled with swastikas have appeared on some campuses.[23] Fraternities have sold T-shirts that read "Slap a JAP." At one university, whenever a lull occurs during football games and a stylishly dressed woman is sighted, members of the band point to her and loudly chant, "JAP! JAP! JAP!" Women at this institution say that they fear standing up during a game, for the chant can be directed at any woman who is noticed.[24] "JAPs Do Not Enter" signs with swastikas were hung on dormitory doors at one school. Cartoons about "JAPs" appeared in a campus newspaper.[25]

There have also been reports of older women and disabled women being harassed by their peers. At one school, a group of men surrounded a woman in a wheelchair and taunted her before they allowed her to pass.

As mentioned earlier, women in traditionally male fields seem especially likely to be harassed.

Heavy or unattractive women are frequent targets of harassment. Comments about their appearance may be especially hurtful if they correspond to an already poor self-image.

Many lesbians have been the victims of verbal harassment, intimidation, and even physical assault.

Women who raise women's concerns, indicate support for women's issues, or take an active part in pressing for change (such as working in a women's center) are often deliberately targeted for harassment. Some men try to intimidate or express their anger to these women by calling them lesbians. Women have received anonymous threatening letters and phone calls and are often the target of mean or obscene remarks. One woman who worked at a campus women's center was surrounded by a group of men in the bathroom of her coeducational dorm. The men denigrated her work, exposed themselves, and threatened to rape her. The incident ended when other people entered the bathroom and she broke away. When she asked to transfer to another dormitory because of the incident, her request was denied.

Cross-Cultural Differences

American colleges and universities--especially the larger research universities--often have students and teachers from around the world. Twelve percent of those enrolled in graduate school are from other countries.[26] This can mean a rich, diverse cultural experience for everyone, but it can also mean problems. Many of the foreign male students come from cultures that do not consider women equal to men. Indeed, to some international students (and faculty members), women who are alone may be viewed as "loose" women. Since college women are alone, some of these men view them as open to sexual activity and have grabbed, kissed, and fondled women against their will.[27] Some have been sexually harassed and assaulted. Teaching assistants have refused to call on women or have made hostile remarks toward women in class.

What Causes Peer Harassment?

There is no single explanation for the phenomenon of peer harassment; it is a complicated interaction that varies with individuals and situations. What follows is a brief discussion of rather complicated phenomena. It is not meant to be an exhaustive treatment of the subject.

Peer harassment often begins long before students arrive at college. It occurs in high school and even in elementary school. Many men who harass women view them as a class of people, not as individuals. Their actions are often based on stereotyped views. They do not see the people behind the stereotypes.

Men are generally socialized to be dominant. They may be uncomfortable dealing with strong women and their discomfort may translate into anger. For some men, lashing out at these and other women by harassing them is a way to alleviate their discomfort. For some, harassment is anger against feminism--a way to strike back at women.

Clearly, anger against women (whether conscious or not) is one of the underlying motives for much harassment--especially in situations where women are physically injured. Anger can come from many sources: from a personal affront, as in the case of a man who has been treated badly by his girlfriend and who wants to take it out on all women; to a general resentment, for example, about having to compete with women for jobs or admission into graduate school. Anger also can come from sexual frustration: A man may be attracted to a woman, be frustrated when she does not reciprocate her feelings, and thus lash out at her and/or other women. In many ways, women may become scapegoats for men's problems.

Peer harassment may also involve issues of power and control. By hurting someone or making other people feel weak, some men feel stronger. This is reminiscent of the "bully" syndrome in which the smaller, weaker person is attacked by the stronger one. In other forms of sexual harassment, too, when a faculty member harasses a student or a supervisor harasses an employee, power and control are factors. The person doing the harassing uses his (or her) power to intimidate sexually the other person.

Many men feel they are more powerful than women. Because their sense of well-being depends on being stronger, smarter, and more assertive than women, men may belittle and otherwise devalue women as a way of confirming their superiority.[28]

As mentioned earlier, a desire to be "one of the boys" and be accepted can explain some men's behavior, especially in groups. Participating in harassing activities becomes a way to bond with other men, a way to prove oneself. The social immaturity of students also has been used to explain--and then excuse--harassing behaviors.

The Role of Alcohol and Drugs

"I was approached by a very drunk guy at a party who made obscene suggestions. It made me feel disgusted and angry."

Alcohol and drugs are common to some incidents of peer harassment. By reducing people's inhibitions and creating an atmosphere where even hurtful or violent behavior is considered amusing, alcohol can make otherwise unacceptable behavior seem acceptable. This is especially true when men are in groups. A single man drinking too much can be hurtful; a group of men who have been drinking can be even more so. A crowd mentality combines with the lack of inhibition caused by alcohol to create a potentially explosive situation. Unfortunately, many fraternities encourage heavy drinking among their members; at some fraternity parties, the only drinks available are alcoholic beverages. Sexual abuse, including gang rape, is often linked to alcohol.

Cocaine can also be a factor in peer harassment. Unlike marijuana, which tends to make people lethargic and passive, cocaine is often energizing and typically creates a feeling of power, of being superior and in control, thus setting the stage for harassment incidents.

The Role of Pornography and Violence in the Media

Pornography is readily available to college students. Magazines such as Hustler are sold on many college campuses. Pornographic movies are sometimes used as a fund-raising device by student groups, most notably fraternities. Pornography generally degrades women and often depicts situations in which women are weak and treated badly; they are portrayed as enjoying rape, pain, and humiliation. Often violence is an integral part of what is portrayed. Many sociologists believe that those exposed to a great deal of pornographic material are influenced by its messages about women. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to explore a direct link between pornography and harassment of women, it is possible that such a link exists.

Violent movies, music videos, and publications that not pornographic but depict women as being brutalized can be as harmful as pornography. They, too, promote a perception of women as outsiders, as objects that exist for men to exploit, manipulate, and harm.

Legal Considerations

In many instances, peer harassment is more than a personal issue; it also may be illegal. What follows is a brief discussion of how campus peer harassment may be treated under law.[29]

- Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This law prohibits discrimination, including sexual harassment, in employment. In Meritor Savings Bank, FSB v. Vinson,[30] the U.S. Supreme Court defined prohibited sexual harassment to include an offensive environment for employees (irrespective of any threat of loss of economic benefit). The Title VII guidelines describe one of the criteria to determine which behaviors are illegal: "The conduct has the purpose or effect of substantially interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment."[31] In several cases, courts have ruled that managers and supervisors in some instances may be held responsible for harassment by coworkers. Thus, institutions may be liable in many instances for peer harassment occurring when student employees work with each other.

- Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. This law prohibits sex discrimination in institutions receiving federal funds. All programs and activities are covered.[32] Title IX requires that an institution provide an environment free of discrimination. It clearly prohibits sexual harassment of students by faculty and staff. It can also prohibit harassment of students by students as well.

In general, the interpretation of what constitutes sexual harassment under Title IX has followed the concepts developed under employment discrimination law (Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964). Although no case involving Title IX and sexual harassment has reached the Supreme Court, it is likely that the Court would follow its own lead from the Meritor case and others. Just as courts have held under Title IX that coworkers and peers can cause an employer to be liable for sexual harassment through the creation of an offensive environment, so, too, it is expected that schools would be held liable under Title IX for sexual harassment of students by students, including the creation of an offensive environment that interferes with a student's learning and well-being.

Standards of employer and institutional liability are still evolving in the area of harassment. To the extent that acts of harassment are serious and repeated and an institution has taken no preventive measures, however, the likelihood of institutional liability increases. For example, institutions might be held responsible for peer harassment in their classrooms if faculty members knew or should have known that harassment was occurring and did nothing to stop it.

Title IX also requires that institutions have grievance procedures to handle discrimination complaints. Institutions ignoring peer harassment complaints might therefore be in violation of Title IX. Institutions in violation of Title IX may face having charges filed by students with the Department of Education or in federal court, and may risk federal intervention and loss of federal funds.

- Criminal laws. In some instances, harassed students may have a cause of action under state sexual assault and sexual abuse laws. State or local laws prohibiting activities such as disorderly conduct; trespassing; and lewd, obscene, or lascivious behavior also may be applicable to certain forms of peer harassment.

- State Anti-Discrimination Laws. Several states have laws that prohibit discrimination in educational institutions and may cover peer harassment. Minnesota law, for example, requires that institutions must respond to sexual harassment complaints within twenty-four hours.

- Other Laws. Many legal issues involving student-to-student harassment are unsettled. Students may be able to claim emotional damage and sue the harassing individual(s) for monetary relief in instances of severe harassment. Some experts suggest that institutions as well as the harassing individuals also might be liable, especially when the acts interfere with the learning climate and affect a student's psychological well-being, and when the institution did not provide relief once it knew or should have known that an act of harassment had taken place. This, too, is an evolving area of law, and liability and remedies will vary depending on state law and the nature of the harassment. To the extent to which institutions are responsible for campus behavior--including actions by fraternities--institutions may be liable to suits for damages.

Although institutions cannot control completely the behavior of students, they may be able to limit any potential liability by developing, disseminating, and enforcing effective policies, and by providing educational programs to discourage harassment. Institutions should not condone or ignore actions or words that a reasonable person would view as harassing or demeaning. In general, students have a right to learn and live in an environment that supports their dignity and self-esteem.

The Role of Institutions

"Suppose, for example, a different scenario than the take back the night march here recently, where fraternity members . . . exhibited outrageous behavior. Suppose instead that a group of Black students, fed up with prejudicial treatment, had marched peacefully . . . past some dormitories . . . where white students . . . taunt[ed] marchers . . . with filthy language and racial epithets.

'Never would happen,' you say . . . Why not? Because all . . . students are free of racial prejudice? I doubt it . . . It would not happen because neither the Black community here . . . nor the university community as a whole would stand for it. And even if, in fact, a few students did shout racial epithets . . . we would not all be treated to pious trash about how only a small minority of students had behaved that way, and about how in any case the Black student marchers were asking for it by implicitly provoking the white community."[33]

Some people believe that institutions should have little or no role in dealing with peer harassment, except perhaps in the case of the most extreme incidents. Abusive behavior on the part of young men may be viewed as "youthful hijinks." A woman's complaints may be dismissed as an "overreaction" or "oversensitivity." She may be told she ought to be able to handle the situation herself or not take it so seriously. Similarly, some department chairs and deans have ignored women who have complained about harassment from students, teaching assistants, or faculty members from foreign countries. Instead of addressing the issue, administrators have said, "Try to be understanding. He is from another culture."

Increasing numbers of campus administrators are trying to prevent and deal with peer harassment. At some institutions where rules and regulations governing student behavior were relaxed or abandoned during the 1960s, administrators and students are now considering a return to some form of in loco parentis. The phrase in loco parentis, which literally means "in the place of the parent," describes what some people believe to be the proper role of the institution: protecting their students, much as a parent would protect a child. Many persons on campus believe institutional intervention is necessary. As a former student activist has pointed out, there is a certain irony in this point of view because "the kinds of administrative controls over student life now demanded by these activists are similar to those that students of the 1960s fought against."[34]

Just as institutions should prevent and deal with instances of racial harassment, institutions should prevent and deal with instances of peer harassment based on sex. Institutions need to provide a climate in which men and women can grow and learn. It is well within the mandate of institutions to teach responsible behavior. These are public problems that need public solutions.

Recommendations[35]

> "Students must get help from their universities in developing moral standards or they are unlikely to get much assistance at all . . . [Schools need to develop] fair rules of conduct that reinforce . . . basic values."
> Derek Bok, president, Harvard University[36]

Campus peer harassment is an issue of growing concern at many colleges as administrators increasingly recognize that a climate that tolerates harassment can inhibit academic learning, social growth, and psychological well-being. On some campuses, however, peer harassment is tolerated or ignored because the harm it can cause is often not recognized. The following recommendations are designed to help institutions deal with peer harassment and help them create an atmosphere in which such behaviors are no longer condoned or accepted. Unfortunately, there is no one solution to the problem of campus peer harassment. We have, therefore, developed a wide range of strategies. Many of the recommendations that follow can be adapted to individual campuses, although not all recommendations are appropriate for all campuses. The recommendations deal with prevention as well as what to do when harassment occurs. Additionally, the recommendations may be used as part of an institutional self-evaluation.

Because peer harassment incidents can range from moderate to severe, these recommendations have been developed to cover a wide range of incidents, including both sexual and nonsexual harassment. In deciding what actions to take, institutions may find it helpful to keep in mind that the severity of the incident matters more than whether or not it was strictly sexual in nature. In general, institutions need to respond to all serious incidents of peer harassment.[37]

Educating the Campus Community

Since the mandate of colleges and universities is to educate, the following recommendations are central to an institution's educational role in dealing with peer harassment on campus. As in dealing with racial bigotry, administrators find that education is more effective in preventing peer harassment than simply prohibiting the harassment. Additionally, sponsoring many activities throughout the school year helps maintain awareness of these issues. A single program, no matter how effective, is less likely to have a long-lasting impact.

- Ensure that there is a mechanism for coordinating a broad range of programs on sexism and other topics related to peer harassment. This could be a single office, or several offices, each responsible for specific areas. Provide adequate support for purchasing and developing materials for dissemination on campus.

- Train counselors, residential assistants, and other student personnel administrators to deal with peer harassment, including helping students handle it themselves when appropriate.
- Arrange to have peer counselors and resident advisors conduct discussions in dormitories about peer harassment issues.
- Require that student leaders attend peer harassment workshops or programs.
- Have staff or students organize a campuswide conference or speak out to sensitize the academic community to peer harassment.
- Inform faculty members about what constitutes peer harassment, especially in the classroom, and suggest ways to deal with it. For example, if men hiss when women discuss women's issues, faculty members will be alerted to react to and stop the behavior rather than ignore it.
- During orientation, stress such values as respect for others, tolerance, and freedom from harassment or intimidation for all members of the academic community. Such an emphasis can lay the foundation for improved relationships among students.
- Make sure that all new and transfer students receive a copy of school policies against peer harassment.
- Develop educational programs for all-male groups such as football and men's basketball teams and fraternities. These groups often perpetuate predatory attitudes toward women.
- Encourage men to form support groups to talk about interactions and relationships with women. For example, a discussion group at Haverford College (PA) was formed in 1986 to talk about how it feels to be male. Topics included date rape, girlfriends, and what it means to be assertive rather than aggressive.[38]
- Encourage fraternities and sororities to develop and present programs on peer harassment.
- Use campus radio, newspaper, and television to publicize availability of help for handling problems of peer harassment.
- Include references to peer harassment in any campus materials about sexual harassment. Several colleges and universities do this.
- Develop specific materials on peer harassment. The Hawaii Department of Education's poster against sexual harassment ("Sexual Harassment: It's Uncool") says, in part, "When you were a kid you and your friends may have teased the girls, made them cry, maybe even hurt some of them.

'Boys will be boys,' was the excuse. Let's call it what it is: sexual harassment. Domineering, tough, abusive behavior is not 'masculine.' It's unhealthy. It's uncool."[39]

- Hold an "Awareness Week" and schedule programs around the issue of peer harassment.
- Mention peer harassment in speeches to reinforce its importance as an institutional priority. In a convocation speech, the president of the University of New Hampshire addressed the issue of campus violence against women.
- Invite speakers to campus to discuss peer harassment issues. Publicize these events widely.
- Inform students about the legal definitions of and punishment for indecent exposure; lewd, obscene, and harassing behaviors; and sexual assault. Remind students that they may be civilly as well as criminally liable for psychological and physical injuries resulting from peer harassment.
- Promote activities in which students of both sexes and different racial and ethnic groups can participate together and learn about each other. For example, offer a series of workshops on topics such as assertiveness training, building self-esteem, development of values, sexual decision making, managing anger, resolving conflict, managing stress, enhancing relationships, human relations training, alcohol education, training in social skills, sex role socialization, valuing diversity, and the appropriate use of personal power. Many schools have done this. These workshops help clarify many of the issues involved in peer harassment.
- Offer self-defense classes for women. These programs also help women develop self-confidence in their ability to handle uncomfortable situations.
- Sponsor educational forums about pornography. Most schools have difficulty banning pornographic movies and publications from campus. They have had more success in sponsoring educational forums that often lead to the movies being cancelled or publications withdrawn.
- Hold a special orientation session each semester with international students and describe appropriate behavior toward women peers on campus. Provide written materials reiterating this message. Provide similar training and materials for teaching assistants and faculty members from other countries.
- Encourage or require students to take ethnic studies and women's studies courses as a way to help them explore their own attitudes and values. Denison University (OH) requires all students to take a course in either women's or ethnic studies.

Developing Policies and Programs

- Make sure that the code of student conduct expressly forbids sexual harassment of one student by another; date rape and other forms of sexual exploitation; intimidating or threatening behavior; and assault. For example, the student code at the University of Florida bars "actions or statements that amount to harassment or intimidation or hazing" and actions "including those of sexual nature which are intimidating, harassing, or abusive."[40]

- Include descriptions of specific forms of prohibited behavior in the student handbook or student code so that students understand what is being prohibited. Include an overall phrase (such as "lack of respect for others") that will cover incidents not explicitly described. List a wide range of possible penalties. Retaliation for filing a complaint should be clearly prohibited.

- Ensure that policies prohibiting sexual harassment cover student-to-student harassment. Many of these policies apply only to harassment by faculty, administrators, and other staff.

- Expand polices prohibiting racial harassment by students to include peer harassment based on sex. (Some schools have prohibited violence and harassment based on race but not based on sex.) The new University of Michigan code of behavior (1988) prohibits any threat or act that interferes with a student's education or "creates an intimidating, hostile, or demeaning environment" because of his or her race, sex, religion, or sexual preference. Specifically mention minority women as a group that may be harassed.

- Peer harassment policies should not apply only to sex but to race, disability, and sexual preference as well.

- Write policies that enable a school to pursue charges in a case of a serious alleged violation of the student conduct code even if the victim does not do so.[41] In some situations in which a school has taken action against an individual, several women who were reluctant to bring charges earlier came forward with additional complaints against the student.

- Disseminate these policies widely and frequently (at least annually). Include them in student orientation programs and materials.

- Ensure that the office of student life includes in its mandate the responsibility for handling and preventing peer harassment. (If there is no such office, establish one.)

- When serious incidents of harassment occur, issue a public statement from the president condemning the behavior. Lack of official response is often misconstrued as approval or lack of concern. At Princeton University (NJ), after men and women involved in a "Take Back the Night" march were threatened, harassed, and mooned, campus officials issued a strong statement, making it clear that such behavior would not be tolerated. A second march was immediately scheduled and took place without incident.

- Publicly identify harassment as a serious issue. At Bates College (ME), faculty members cancelled all classes and activities so students could attend a series of workshops and seminars on harassment. This followed an incident in which two male students attached an obscene picture with a note to the office door of a female faculty member. There had also been incidents in which male students had been harassing female students in their dormitories.

- Appoint a task force that includes students to examine the problem of peer harassment on campus by:
    - gathering information through surveys, hearings, or other methods; the Massachusetts Institute of Technology published such a report in 1983, Barriers to Equality in Academia: Women in Computer Science at MIT;
    - evaluating current policies and procedures and, if necessary, drafting new ones to deal with peer harassment behaviors; and
    - recommending educational and preventive programs.
- Periodically review the extent of peer harassment via open hearings, interviews with student groups and individual students, and written student evaluations. This process helps ensure continued awareness of the issue and evaluation of the effectiveness of policies and procedures.
- Establish a civility commission similar to the one established by the University of Massachusetts--Amherst.[42]
- Establish a program of students working as counselor/advocates against sexual abuse. These students can provide confidential peer counseling, support services, advocacy, education, and information for victims of rape, battering, and sexual harassment. Hampshire College (MA) has a program that does this. The program is staffed by a full-time coordinator and ten student volunteers. (Often students are more comfortable talking to other students than to staff.)
- Encourage dormitory residents to establish codes of behavior regarding interpersonal conduct.
- Encourage interfraternity councils to develop codes of behavior concerning women. The Interfraternity Council at San Diego State University developed a statement condemning all forms of sexual abuse, including harassment.
- Require individual fraternities and sororities to establish their own policies on peer harassment. These policies should be reviewed periodically by members and posted in the fraternity and sorority houses. Pledges should be asked to sign a statement that they have read the statement and will abide by it.
- Require fraternities to prohibit any dangerous or harmful activities. Develop procedures to monitor and enforce this policy. Many schools have such policies. At Cornell University, for example, the Pan-Hellenic Council, representing forty-two fraternities and thirteen sororities, has an anti-hazing policy that prohibits all physically harmful activities.
- Encourage student government organizations to publicize, sponsor, and conduct programs and to pass resolutions condemning peer harassment.

- Encourage campus minority, ethnic, and religious groups (such as Black student unions, campus ministries, and Hillel foundations) to publicize, sponsor, and conduct programs and to pass resolutions concerning harassment of women in general and of women from their particular group.

- Include peer harassment information in alcohol education programs and develop regulations for alcohol use on campus. Require that nonalcoholic beverages be available whenever alcohol is served at parties. Involve students in developing guidelines and planning how to increase student awareness.

- The student code of conduct should clearly state that use or abuse of alcohol will not be accepted as an excuse for abusive or damaging behaviors or for lessening sanctions against unacceptable acts.

- Develop a policy that discourages the use of pornography for profit or entertainment. Prohibit school support for such activities.

- Establish a procedure whereby buildings and equipment, such as tables and library carrels, are periodically inspected for sexist, racist, anti-Semitic, and other offensive graffiti. Develop ways to remove or cover such graffiti. Syracuse University (NY) has begun to remove graffiti from library desks.

- Report annually on peer harassment. Such a report could be incorporated into annual reports on sexual harassment in general, reports on racism, and reports on student life. The University of Minnesota issues an annual chart showing all reported incidents of sexual harassment (with names and other identifying information deleted). The chart, which is printed in the student newspaper, describes each incident, how it was handled, and what happened subsequently. The information not only helps people understand what behaviors violate institutional policy but also demonstrates how the institution is taking an active role in ending these behaviors.

Empowering Women

Many administrators who deal with peer harassment have found that most students do not want to file formal charges against their peers. They simply want the harassment to stop. In such instances, helping a women handle the situation herself may be the most effective way to deal with peer harassment. Empowering a woman by providing her with options for responding to an uncomfortable situation makes her less of a victim. It also teaches her skills that will be valuable throughout her life.

One way to empower women is to ensure that those persons handling peer harassment complaints are familiar with the letter technique, which consists of having the harassed person send the harasser a special letter. The letter is polite, low-key, and detailed. It consists of three parts:

(1) a factual account of what happened, without any evaluation, as seen by the writer;

(2) a description of how the writer feels about what happened; and

(3 what the writer wants to happen next (for example, "I want you to stop harassing me and leave me alone.")

Writing the letter can give the writer a sense of doing something constructive about the situation. It can also give the harasser a new perception of how his behavior is experienced by others.[43]

Implementing Procedures

- Be sure that informal procedures are available so that complaints can be handled without formal charges when appropriate. Informal procedures can protect the privacy of persons involved and provide harassers with the opportunity to change their behavior. Furthermore, justice can sometimes best be served by having the accused agree to a penalty--such as community service--and apologize to the victim and therefore avoid a hearing.
- Explore the option of "third-party conciliation" as one way to handle complaints. This is especially useful in cases of ongoing harassment.[44]
- Be sure there is a way to deal with incidents that are disputed or unproved. As part of its new "Madison Plan," the University of Wisconsin-Madison is establishing a nondisciplinary mediation and counseling program under the auspices of the dean of students to provide immediate responses in cases of racial harassment. Such a program could be appropriate for some cases of peer harassment.
- Establish reasonable time frames for handling complaints.
- Publicize the name, office, and phone number of the appropriate person(s) who deals with peer harassment complaints. Be sure that the publicity reaches faculty members, administrators, staff, and students.
- Ensure that students who want to bypass informal resolution have the option of immediately taking formal steps, such as bringing charges before a discipline committee.
- Be sure that the person(s) designated to handle peer harassment complaints has received training in mediation techniques. The training will be helpful even if formal mediation is not involved in resolving a complaint.
- Provide rape crisis training for those who will be handling peer harassment complaints. This is useful training for handling serious incidents even if they are not actually sexual assault cases.
- Ensure confidentiality (when possible) so that those who have been harassed can freely discuss the incident.
- Respond when students anonymously report incidents of peer harassment that happened to them or to others. Depending on the seriousness of the incident, institutional response might range from talking to the alleged harasser to conducting a full-scale investigation.

- Ensure that the committee or other body that administers the student conduct code includes a substantial number of women.

- Warn the accused to avoid any contact with the accuser during the period when the charges are being investigated (and in some instances, after a charge has been filed). Some men have tried to intimidate women into dropping charges.

- Specifically inform a student who has been accused of harassment that any retaliation by him or his friends against the person who reported the incident will be a serious offense.

- Inform both the accuser and the accused about what will happen next, including the disciplinary committee's procedures. It is helpful to have specially prepared materials that students can take with them and read later. A question/answer format is useful.

- Consider informing the parents of young students who have been subjected to serious harassment (as well as those accused of harassing) about what has happened, is happening, and is going to happen.

- Inform participants (victims and harassers) both by letter and in person about the actual charges in any disciplinary hearing.

- Develop procedures for handling peer harassment complaints for times when school is not in session--for example, before a semester begins or after classes end.

- Develop written guidelines for dealing with peer harassment for persons likely to handle such incidents, such as resident advisors and fraternity and sorority faculty sponsors.

- Especially when serious incidents occur and both the harassers and the persons harassed live in the same living unit, consider moving the harassers to another unit. Should the victims prefer to move, provide alternative housing. In several incidents, including gang rapes that occurred in dormitories, the victims were not allowed to change housing.

- Arrange for men involved in peer harassment cases to receive counseling, if appropriate. This should not be viewed as a substitute for disciplinary action.

- Ensure that the judicial procedures follow due process.

- When formal charges are filed, conduct an investigation of what happened. Clarify who is in charge of the campus investigation and set appropriate lines of communication. This will eliminate confusion and duplication. It will also help students know who is in authority and to whom they should be talking.

- Be sure that policies allow those who have been harassed as well as those charged to be accompanied by support persons at any hearings that may be held.

- Develop a clear and consistent policy on appropriate sanctions for those individuals who commit serious peer harassment offenses. Sanctions, varying with the seriousness of the incident, might include one or more of the following:
  - counseling, including group counseling, to help harassers better understand the nature of their acts and the implications and consequences for themselves and their victims;
  - requiring the perpetrators to attend workshops on peer harassment;
  - in cases involving excessive drinking, requiring those involved to attend programs on alcohol abuse;
  - requiring those involved to inform their parents;
  - requiring relevant community service such as helping alleviate the problem of campus peer harassment by preparing posters or disseminating information about harassment;
  - requiring the perpetrators to write a letter of apology to the victim;
  - probation for a specified time;
  - suspension for a specified time;
  - expulsion. The University of Michigan Board of Regents has approved new rules for student conduct that include expulsion from the university as a possible penalty for those guilty of committing discriminatory acts (including actions based on a person's sex).[45]

Special Help for Students Who Are Harassed

- Be sure there are many resources for women who have been harassed. Resources may include the counseling center, women's center, student affairs office, and resident assistants. Providing alternatives encourages women to come forward to talk about their experiences.
- Be sure that information and counseling, as well as medical care and protection, if needed, are available to women who have been harassed.
- Ensure that a woman who cites an incident of peer harassment knows that the institution's support services, such as counseling, are available whether or not she files a formal charge or cooperates in a campus investigation. For the more serious forms of harassment, provide the student with specific information about the support the institution will provide.
- In cases of severe harassment, support systems should be extended in order to help the person harassed handle any academic problems that may arise after the harassment. Such support could take the form of offering to provide the student with a letter to faculty members explaining her situation or a support person who will accompany her while she talks with faculty members.

- Inform peer harassment victims of the possibility of countercharges being filed by the person she is filing against. At one school, a woman was involved in an altercation at an off-campus bar. She and another student had been drinking heavily, started arguing, and ended up shoving each other before they were stopped by onlookers. The woman complained about the incident at school and subsequently found out that the young man involved had filed a complaint against her. At another school, a man accused of rape filed a charge of defamation of character against his accuser.

Institutional Self-Evaluation Checklist

- Are there specific policies and effective procedures dealing with peer harassment?
- Does the code of student conduct expressly forbid peer harassment behaviors?
- Are policies and procedures well publicized and widely circulated periodically among faculty, staff, and students?
- Are there specific persons on campus to whom women can go for help with peer harassment issues? How do students learn whom they should see?
- Are there effective channels for complaints about peer harassment?
- Does the sexual harassment policy cover sexual harassment by peers?
- Are remedies clear and commensurate with the level of violation?
- Is there a procedure to inform new students, staff, and faculty about peer harassment?
- Is there a task force or other structure that has examined peer harassment on your campus?
- Are there regular campus workshops or programs on peer harassment issues? alcohol education?
- What services are available to victims of peer harassment?

A Word to Students: Some Dos and Don'ts

These recommendations are for men and women alike:

- Do protest organized activities demeaning to women--for example, wet T-shirt contests or pornographic movies used as fund-raisers.
- Do organize against sexual assault on campus. Numerous women's groups have sponsored "Take Back the Night" marches against sexual assault on campus. Men often march with women to show their support.

- Do try to plan positive activities in response to negative behavior. When pornographic movies are shown, some campus groups provide educational programs about pornography.

- Do support activities of women's groups on your campus.

- Do support those who are protesting peer harassment on campus. If you do not officially join them, at least offer them your emotional support. Do not ridicule them.

- Do encourage your school newspaper to do stories on peer harassment on your campus.

- Do report peer harassment incidents to the proper authorities on campus.

- Do avoid degrading or dangerous sorority or fraternity initiation rites. Generally, women should be wary of any sorority invitation rite that involves going to a fraternity house.

- Don't participate in wet T-shirt contests, "nude olympics," "body passing," or other demeaning activities.

- Don't tell jokes that demean women.

- Don't condone harassment by men or collusion by women. Speak up and protest to individuals who harass and, if you feel safe doing so, to groups of men harassing women. (Say, for example, "This behavior is offensive to women, and I don't like it" or "I wish you wouldn't") You can also leave an event. In other words, do whatever you can to create an attitude of nonacceptance of this behavior and of peer harassment in general.

- Don't drink to excess. People who drink may get into verbal or physical sparring matches.

- Don't do anything which makes you uncomfortable.

Notes

1. Report of a trustee commission on campus life at a four-year college. Generally we have not identified the institutions that are sources of quotations or examples used in this report. Our experience indicates that peer harassment is not an unusual occurrence and we do not want to imply--by naming institutions--that incidents occur only at these institutions or that the climate at these institutions is worse than at others. Quotations, unless otherwise identified, are from students.

2. Mary S. Hartman, dean of Douglass College, Rutgers--The State University--New Brunswick (Testimony before University Select Committee on Fraternities 19 April 19 1988), p. 8.

3. While some people would place relationship violence and acquaintance rape at the end of a peer harassment continuum, others believe that rape is in a category by itself. For further information about rape, see the Project on the Status and Education of Women's (PSEW) Campus Rape Packet and *"Friends" Raping Friends: Could It Happen to You?* listed below in "Selected Resources." For further information about relationship violence (physical and psychological abuse including degradation and intimidation), see, for example, editorial "Premarital Violence: Battering on College Campuses," *Response to Violence in the Family*, vol. 4, no. 6 (July/August 1981), p. 1.

4. Men also harass other men--for example, gay men. Many of the recommendations in this report are also applicable to these situations.

5. In fact, one writer, Pat Mahony, finds coeducation a "disaster" for women; "Co-education does not prepare girls. It batters them." See *Schools for the Boys? Co-education Reassessed* (London: Hutchinson Publishing Group 1985), p. 90; as cited in a book review by Carolyn C. Lougee, *Signs*, vol. 13, no. 1 (Autumn 1987), p. 170.

6. Warren A. Brown and Jane Maestro-Scherer, *Assessing Sexual Harassment and Public Safety: A Survey of Cornell Women* (New York: Cornell Institute for Social and Economic Research, July 1, 1986), p. 23.

7. Elizabeth Jane Salkind, "'Can't You Take a Joke?' A Study of Sexual Harassment Among Peers" (Master's thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, February 1986), p. 63.

8. *Assessment of Sexual Harassment: Within the URI Community: A Report of an Investigation by the Assessment Task Group of the Sexual Harassment Committee* (Kingston, RI: University of Rhode Island, August 1980), p. 26.

9. At a number of institutions, peer harassment has been cited as one of several reasons for disbanding the fraternity system.

10. Edward B. Fiske, "A New President in a Week of Rallies and Parties," *New York Times*, 30 April 1987, p. B-3.

11. See, for example, Salkind, "Can't You Take a Joke?," p. 72, Table 4.C.2.

12. Women in groups also may do things that they would not do if alone. However, gang behavior among females is generally not as prevalent nor as destructive as that of males in groups. Additionally, gang behavior by males such as hazing is often widely accepted in societal institutions ranging from fraternities to the military.

13. Lougee, book review, p. 170.

14. Sue Anne Presley, "Three Men Storm Maryland Sorority House," The Washington Post, 13 September 1986, p. D-1.

15. For example, at one institution male students residing in a coeducational dormitory "captured" a female resident, tied her to a bed spreadeagle, and tormented and humiliated her. She was molested but not raped.

16. Unpublished data, PSEW files. For further information, see Campus Gang Rape: Party Games?, listed below in "Selected Resources."

17. Equally important, large numbers of women students report incidents of sexual aggression. Barry R. Burkhart presented the results of two studies at the "Acquaintance Rape and Rape Prevention on Campus Workshop" held in Louisville, KY, December 12-14, 1983. In one study, 75 percent of first-year women students reported they had experienced some form of sexual aggression. In the other study of two hundred college sophomore and junior women, 15 percent had been forced to have sex against their will; 35 percent had clothing unfastened against their will; 35 percent had their genital area touched against their will; and only 43 percent had not been forced to do anything against their will.

18. The same picture is not categorized as sexual harassment if it is on display in the privacy of a male student's room.

19. Studies show that men interrupt women significantly more often than they interrupt other males. See, for example, The Classroom Climate: A Chilly One for Women?, listed below in "Selected Resources."

20. Consciously or not, male faculty members, including teaching assistants, are models for male students. When they treat women with respect, they are teaching appropriate behavior to their students. However, some male faculty members do not treat women well, for example, by using sexist humor to "spice up a dull subject," or by making disparaging comments about women. They are thus demonstrating behavior that will encourage male students to disparage and possibly harass women. Some faculty members support male students who harass women in class by ignoring or refusing to discourage harassing behavior. At other times, faculty members may laugh along with male students at the expense of women. By treating women with respect and discouraging harassment of any sort, male faculty members may not only influence what happens in a classroom, but may provide examples of good behavior that can be used outside the classroom as well.

21. Julie K. Ehrhart and Bernice R. Sandler, Campus Gang Rape: Party Games? (Washington, DC: Project on the Status and Education of Women of the Association of American Colleges, 1985), p. 7.

22. For further discussion, including the relationship of JAP jokes to anti-Semitism, see Sherry Chayat, "'JAP' Baiting on the College Scene," Judith Allen Rubenstein, "The Graffiti Wars," and Susan Schnur, "Blazes of Truth," Lilith, No. 17 (Fall 1987).

23. Laura Shapiro, "When Is a Joke Not a Joke?," Newsweek, 23 May 1988, p. 79.

24. Rubenstein, "The Graffiti Wars," p. 8.

25. Nadine Brozan, "'Princess' Label Linked to Bigotry," New York Times, 2 May 1988.

26. Of these, the number of men (70,300) is nearly three times the number of women (25,000). These statistics are reported in CGS/GRE Annual Survey of Graduate Enrollment: 1986 Report, compiled by the Council of Graduate Schools and the Educational Testing Service. (Princeton, NJ: December 1987), pp. 6-7.

27. Some men may be well aware of the inappropriateness of their behavior but pretend that they do not know the rules of acceptable behavior.

28. For additional entries, see Barriers to Equality in Academia: Women in Computer Science at MIT, prepared by female graduate students and research staff in the Laboratory for Computer Science and the Artificial Intelligence Laboratory at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, February 1983. For a discussion of devaluation, see The Classroom Climate: A Chilly One for Women, listed below in "Selected Resources."

29. Generally, institutions are concerned with, and in many instances liable for, incidents occurring on campus and at university-sponsored off-campus events. Institutional liability for other off-campus acts of students is generally more limited.

30. 106 Supreme Court 2399 (1986).

31. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "Discrimination Because of Sex Under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as Amended: Adoption of Interpretive Guidelines," Federal Register, vol. 455, no. 72, April 11, 1980.

32. As a result of the Supreme Court decision in Grove City College v. Bell, (1984), Title IX coverage was restricted to the specific program or activity receiving federal funds. With the passage of the Civil Rights Restoration Act in March 1988, Title IX's original coverage was restored; that is, the institution, if it receives any federal funds, is prohibited from discrimination in all of its programs or activities. (Exemptions are primarily in the area of abortions, undergraduate admissions to private institutions, and fraternity and sorority single-sex membership requirements.)

33. Hartman testimony, p. 6

34. L. A. Kauffman, "How Political Is the Personal?" The Nation, 26 March 1988, p. 420.

35. Some of these recommendations appear in earlier PSEW publications, especially Campus Gang Rape: Party Games? and Out of the Classroom: A Chilly Campus Climate for Women? Although the recommendations have been developed to deal with harassment of women students by male peers, many of the recommendations are also appropriate for harassment of men or for woman-to-woman harassment.

36. "Bok Says Students Need Colleges' Help on Ethics," Chronicle of Higher Education, vol. 34, no. 32, 20 April 1988, p. A-2.

37. If the person harassed does not want the institution to intervene, it may be best in some instances for the institution not to pursue the matter. However, in these instances, and especially if the incident has been well publicized, the institution might want to respond generally, for example by developing educational programs and policies relating to that type of incident.

38. "University Withdraws Sponsorship of Fraternity After Incident," On Campus With Women, vol. 16, no. 2, (Fall 1986), p. 11.

39. According to a letter (Jan. 25, 1988) from Project ESTEEM staff member Jackie Young, the poster was inspired by the materials put out by sex equity specialists Nan Stein, Gene Lidell, Sheila Hawkins, and the University of Michigan's Center for Sex Equity in Schools' Title IX Line newsletter, vol. 4, no. 1 (Fall 1983).

40. Cheryl M. Fields, "Colleges Weigh Liability in Alcohol and Sexual Harassment Cases," Chronicle of Higher Education, Vol. 34, No. 21, 3 February 1988, p. A-14.

41. See note 37.

42. The Chancellor's Commission on Civility in Human Relations at the University of Massachusetts-Amherst was established in 1980 to "identify incidents of racism, sexism, and anti-Semitism, to assess the moral climate on campus, to formulate public statements opposing antisocial expression, and to recommend action that would improve attitudes and foster decency on campus." (Page 11 of Vincent G. Dethier, A University in Search of Civility [Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts-Amherst, Institute for Governmental Services, 1984].) The commission was composed of students, faculty, and staff. In 1981, the commission spearheaded a "year toward civility," during which there were a variety of activities including workshops, lectures, and films, to sensitize those on campus to issues of sexism, racism, and anti-Semitism. On the commission's recommendation, an office of human relations was established. The civility commission currently has twenty-five members, meets frequently, and operates as part of the office of human relations.

43. For a comprehensive discussion of this technique, see Writing a Letter to the Sexual Harasser, included as part of PSEW's Sexual Harassment Packet listed below in "Selected Resources."

44. Some experts believe that mediation should not be used after the fact. "A student has been hurt or humiliated: she seeks redress of a wrong. Referring her to mediation suggests that she is part of the problem that needs to be resolved and forces her to negotiate with her tormentor." Correspondence from attorney Suzanne Fong to authors, 24 May 1988.

45. "Michigan Sets Penalties for Discriminatory Acts," Chronicle of Higher Education, vol. 34, no. 29, 30 March 1988, p. 3.

Selected Resources

The following publications may be useful in dealing with peer harassment and are available from the Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R St., NW, Washington, DC 20009. ALL ORDERS MUST BE PREPAID. Bulk rates are available. For a list of all PSEW publications, please send a self-addressed, stamped envelope with your request.

- In Case of Sexual Harassment: A Guide for Women Students ($2)
- "Friends" Raping Friends: Could It Happen to You? ($2)
- Sexual Harassment Packet ($5). Includes:
  - Sexual Harassment: A Hidden Issue
  - Selected Articles from ON CAMPUS WITH WOMEN
  - Title VII Sexual Harassment Guidelines and Educational Employment
  - What Can Students Do About Sex Discrimination?
  - Writing a Letter to the Sexual Harasser: Another Way of Dealing With the Problem
  - Harvard Issues Statement About Sexual Harassment and Related Issues
- Campus Rape Packet ($5). Includes:
  - Campus Gang Rape: Party Games?
  - The Problem of Rape on Campus
- Student Climate Issues Packet ($7). Includes:
  - The Classroom Climate: A Chilly One for Women?
  - Selected Activities Using "The Classroom Climate: A Chilly One for Women?
  - Out of the Classroom: A Chilly Campus Climate for Women?
- Looking for More Than a Few Good Women in Traditionally Male Fields ($5)

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Individual copies of this paper are available for $5 (prepaid) from the Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R St., NW, Washington, DC 20009; 202/387-1300. (Bulk rates available: 15-99 copies are $3.50 each--30 percent discount; 100 copies or more are $2.50 each--50 percent discount.) A list of all PSEW publications is available free with a self-addressed stamped envelope.

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IN CASE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT
A Guide for Women Students

We Hope It Doesn't Happen to You, But If It Does . . .

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MYTHS ABOUT SEXUAL HARASSMENT

MYTH: Sexual harassment only happens to women who are provocatively dressed.

FACT: Sexual harassment can happen to anyone, no matter how she dresses.

* * * * *

MYTH: If the woman had only said "NO" to the harasser, he would have stopped immediately.

FACT: Many harassers are told "NO" repeatedly and it does no good. NO is too often heard as YES.

* * * * *

MYTH: If a woman ignores sexual harassment, it will go away.

FACT: No, it won't. Generally, the harasser is a repeat offender who will not stop on his own. Ignoring it may be seen as assent or encouragement.

* * * * *

MYTH: All men are harassers.

FACT: No, only a few men harass. Usually there is a pattern of harassment: one man harasses a number of women either sequentially or simultaneously, or both.

* * * * *

MYTH: Sexual harassment is harmless. Women who object have no sense of humor.

FACT: Harassment is humiliating and degrading. It undermines school careers and often threatens economic livelihood. No one should have to endure humiliation with a smile.

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MYTH: Sexual harassment affects only a few people.

FACT: Surveys on campus show that up to 30 percent of all female college students experience some form of sexual harassment. Some surveys of women in the working world have shown that as many as 70 percent have been sexually harassed in some way.

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Why This Booklet?

Sexual harassment--even the term makes some people uncomfortable. Perhaps it sounds too legalistic or too remote to be a real factor in a student's life. It may sound like something that can be safely ignored, perhaps until the student reaches the "real" working world. But sexual harassment is an issue on campus that will not go away by being ignored: twenty to thirty percent of all female college students experience some form of sexual harassment (ranging from sexist comments, to direct solicitations for sexual favors, to assault), and two percent of all female students experience direct threats or bribes for sexual favors. Two percent may not sound like much, but that is approximately 125,000 women on campus who have had serious problems with sexual harassment. Unfortunately, no school can claim to be exempt, even those with policies prohibiting sexual harassment. Although some schools have developed pamphlets telling students how to deal with it, most have not. In order to fill that void we decided to develop this booklet.

Who Is Likely To Be Harassed?

Anyone on campus is a possible victim of sexual harassment but for the purposes of this booklet, we will be discussing the sexual harassment of students, both undergraduate and graduate. We hope it won't happen to you, but if it does, this booklet may be helpful. We focus on heterosexual harassment, instances where men harass women (and so we will refer to the victim as "she" and the harasser as "he"). Although harassment of men by women exists, as well as gay harassment, these are relatively rare. In any case, many of the strategies we suggest could apply to these types of harassment as well.

Students can be sexually harassed by anyone on campus--professors, advisors, teaching assistants, staff, administrators, or maintenance workers. It can even happen between two students, as when a male student harasses a female student in class and the teacher allows the harassment to occur. It is not limited to the young and the "attractive." It can happen to older students returning to school just as easily as it can to younger students. As with rape, vulnerability and naivete are sometimes key factors in selection of victims.

What Are the Effects of Sexual Harassment?

Sexual harassment affects women in many ways, none of them good. Too often the woman blames herself. Others may also blame her, holding her responsible for what happened rather than blaming the person who did the harassing. The woman's self-confidence and self-esteem may be diminished. She may suffer physical symptoms of stress such as stomach problems and headaches. The effects can be evident, as when a victim drops a course, changes a major, or even drops out of school; or they can be less noticeable as when she becomes depressed and moody and doesn't quite know why. Often a victim feels anger that cannot be expressed and which may lead to feelings of helplessness, powerlessness, and isolation.

What follows, then, is a discussion of what sexual harassment is and what to do about it. Because the strategies suggested are meant to cover the broadest possible range of situations, not every strategy suggested will be appropriate for every person or situation. Suit the strategy to the circumstance. The point is that you do have options. Even though professors and others have power to harm students they don't have the right to do so. There are ways in which they can be stopped. Change is possible.

What Is Sexual Harassment?

Sexual harassment is primarily an issue of power. It occurs when a person with power abuses that power. It is a breach of the trusting relationship that normally exists between students and others in the academic community. Sexual harassment creates confusion because the boundary between the professional role and personal relationship blurs. The harasser introduces the personal element into what should be a sex neutral situation.

The difference between voluntary sexual relationships and sexual harassment is that harassment contains elements of coercion, threat, and/or unwanted attention in a nonreciprocal relationship.[1] Sexual harassment usually is unwelcome and repeated behavior, but in some instances it can be an action that only occurs once. In most normal interpersonal relationships an individual can exercise freedom of choice in deciding with whom they wish to establish a close, intimate relationship. These choices are based on mutual attraction, caring, and a reciprocal interest in pursuing the relationship. These elements are absent in sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment can involve persons in authority who make you uncomfortable because they:

- subject you to unwanted sexual attention, such as making sexual or suggestive comments;
- attempt to coerce you into a sexual relationship;
- punish or threaten to punish you for refusal to comply;
- imply that sexual favors may be a basis for grades in a course or otherwise influence your evaluation;
- engage in conduct which has the purpose or effect of interfering with your performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work or learning environment.

Simply put, sexual harassment is coerced, unethical and unwanted intimacy.

What Are the Types of Sexual Harassment?

Most sexual harassment falls into two categories, verbal and physical. Verbal harassment may include:

- sexual innuendos and comments and sexual remarks about your clothing, body, or sexual activities ("So you're majoring in physical therapy? Gee, I'd love to get some physical therapy from you."; "I noticed you lost weight; I'm glad you didn't lose your gorgeous chest, too."; or "Those jeans really fit you well.");

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[1] In some instances professors may claim they, too, are being sexually harassed because students are "coming on" to them against their wishes. Even if professors may feel physically intimidated by students who "come on" to them, they nevertheless can say "no" without worrying about their self-esteem or loss of a grade or job, which makes the situation somewhat different than when a professor "comes on" to a student.

- suggestive or insulting sounds;
- whistling in a suggestive manner;
- humor and jokes about sex or women in general;
- sexual propositions, invitations, or other pressure for sex ("My office hours are very limited; why don't you drop by my house this evening where we can have plenty of privacy and time to get to know each other much better.");
- implied or overt threats ("It's very simple; if you want to pass accounting, you have to be nice to me and sex is the nicest thing I can think of. It's up to you.").

Physical harassment may include:

- patting, pinching, and any other inappropriate touching or feeling;
- brushing against the body;
- attempted or actual kissing or fondling;
- coerced sexual intercourse;
- assault.

Other types of sexual harassment may include:

- leering or ogling (for example, an advisor who meets with a student and stares at her breasts);
- making obscene gestures.

Some types of sexual harassment are really inappropriate behavior that continues even after the student makes it clear that it is unwanted. For example, some people may like to be patted or touched on the back or arm as a gesture of support, but it may not be universally liked when a teacher does this. The gesture becomes sexual harassment when a student asks the teacher not to do it or in some other way clearly indicates displeasure and the teacher continues to do it.

Some people also consider insults about women in general or displaying obscene photography and literature as a form of sexual harassment while others do not.

What Are Examples of Sexual Harassment?

As you can see, sexual harassment can take many forms. Harassment is not always just in the eye of the beholder. Some of the examples below will show you some of the ways sexual harassment might occur.

- Anne B. is a junior, on the Dean's List, whose English professor repeatedly asked her to go out with him throughout the semester. She refused. Now she finds that her papers in his class are getting very low marks and she is in danger of getting a D for the semester. She is sure that it is retaliation for her refusal.

- Every time Margaret R. sees her advisor in his office, he closes the door, sits close to her and seems to pat her knee a lot in the course of their discussion. Margaret is uncomfortable with this behavior and tries to move away so he can't touch her. He only moves closer to her and continues the behavior. Margaret doesn't know what to do about it.

- Katherine B. is a work-study student who needs her job to stay in school. One day while she is working alone with her boss he puts his arms around her and invites her to come home with him that night. She refuses, and leaves immediately. In the days following, her boss continues to suggest she come home with him and finally she can't face going back to work again. Now she worries about not having a job and how she is going to make her tuition payment next semester.

- Judith M., a single mother who has returned to school to complete her degree after a ten-year absence, asks her professor how she might improve her grade. He suggests they spend more time together, perhaps have dinner, so he could get to know her better and figure out how to give her extra help.

- Maria V. is a sophomore and depressed over the break-up of her relationship with Bill. She had spent all her free time with him and was emotionally dependent on him. She goes to the school counselor who is sympathetic and kind and always available to talk. This interest boosts her self-esteem and convinces her that she is an attractive person. One afternoon he suggests that she come have drinks with him at a new bar so that they can get closer.

- Christine F. is one of the few women in her class in engineering school. She wants to take more classes in a certain specialty but the professor frequently refers to female students in belittling and lewd terms. She decides not to pursue this specialty because, considering his attitude, she doubts she will be treated fairly.

Who Is Especially Vulnerable to Sexual Harassment?

Although all female students can be harassed, there are four categories of students who may be especially vulnerable to sexual harassment;

- women in nontraditional fields because they may be perceived as "barging into" an area where women "don't belong" and will now be in competition with men for jobs;

- women in graduate school who may be nearer in age to their teacher, and involved in close working relationships that could be misinterpreted by faculty as sexual interest;

- minority women who may be sexually harassed as a form of racism or because of stereotypes, for example, such as those that depict Black women as more sexually "available"; and

- vulnerable women whose youth, inexperience, unassertive manner, and social isolation are detected by the harasser who entices her into an exploitive relationship.

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What Should You Not do?

There are three things that you should avoid at all costs.

- Don't blame yourself. Sexual harassment is not something that a woman brings on herself, it is action that the harasser decides to take. It's not your fault. Blaming yourself only turns your anger inward and can lead to depression. You need to turn your anger outward, against the appropriate person, the harasser.

- Don't delay. If you delay action when someone harasses you, it is likely to continue. Also, if you intend to file charges against someone and put off doing so for a long time, you may find out that you have missed the time limit for doing so.

- Don't keep it to yourself. By being quiet about sexual harassment, you enable it to continue. Chances are extremely good that you are not the only victim. Speaking up can protect other people from also becoming victims. Additionally, not telling anyone encourages feelings of helplessness and can also lead to blaming yourself for the incident.

How Can You Get the Institution Involved If Individual Action Doesn't Work?

If individual action, such as saying "No" or writing a letter does not work and the harassment continues, then it is time to consider involving the college or university in the situation if you have not already talked to someone. There are both informal and formal routes to take. Generally speaking, it is better to try the informal approach first.

The first step is to find out who the appropriate person is to contact. This obviously varies from institution to institution. The following is a list of possible people to contact:

- Your advisor;
- Your RA (residence assistant);
- A faculty member (this can be anyone on the faculty you feel you can talk to);
- The chair of the harasser's department, when the harasser is a faculty member;
- The harasser's supervisor when the harasser is a staff person;
- A counselor at the counseling center;
- A staff member of the women's center;
- The director of personnel;
- A campus police officer;
- The dean of students;
- The vice president for student affairs;
- The affirmative action officer; or
- The Title IX officer.

What You Can Do About Sexual Harassment

Ignoring sexual harassment does not make it go away. Indeed, it may make it worse because the harasser may misinterpret no response as approval of his behavior. However, there are things you can do, from informal strategies to formal ones. Here are some of your options:

- Know your rights. Sexual harassment is illegal in many instances. Your college or university may also have specific policies prohibiting faculty and staff from sexually harassing students and employees. Familiarize yourself with these policies. (For example, you can ask the Dean of Students if there is a policy.)

- Speak up at the time. Be sure to say "NO!" clearly, firmly and without smiling. This is not a time to be polite or vague. (For example, you could say "I don't like what you are doing," or "Please stop--you are making me very uncomfortable.") There is a chance--albeit small--that the harasser did not realize that his behavior was offensive to you. Additionally, if you decide to file charges at a later date, it is sometimes helpful, but not essential, to have objected to the behavior.

- Keep records, such as a journal and any letters or notes received. Note the dates, places, times, witnesses and the nature of the harassment--what he said and did and how you responded.

- Tell someone, such as fellow students or coworkers. Find out if others have been harassed by the same person and if they will support you should you decide to take action. Sharing your concern helps to avoid isolation and the tendency to blame yourself. Sexual harassment incidents are usually not isolated; most sexual harassers have typically harassed several or many people.

- Identify an advocate, perhaps a counselor, who can give you emotional support as well as help and information about both informal and formal institutional procedures.

- Write a letter.[2] Many people have successfully stopped sexual harassment by writing a special kind of letter to the harasser. This letter should be polite, low-key, and detailed, and consists of three parts:

    - Part I is a factual account of what has happened, without any evaluation, as seen by the writer. It should be as detailed as possible with dates, places, and a description of the incident(s). (For example, "Last week at the department party you asked me to go to bed with you," or "On Oct. 21, when I came to you for advice on my test, you patted my knee and tried to touch my breast.")

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[2] Based on an article, "Dealing With Sexual Harassment" by Mary P. Rowe which appeared in the May-June 1981 Harvard Business Review. Subsequently developed into a paper focusing on sexual harassment on campus and written by Bernice R. Sandler, "Writing a Letter to the Sexual Harasser: Another Way of Dealing With the Problem" is available from the Project on the Status and Education of Women as part of a packet of papers dealing with sexual harassment on campus. For ordering information, see Selected List of Resources.

- Part II describes how the writer feels about the events described in Part I, such as misery, dismay, distrust, and revulsion. (For example, "My stomach turns to knots when I come to class," or "I'm disgusted when I look at you.")
- Part III consists of what the writer wants to happen next. This part may be very short, since most writers usually just want the behavior to stop. (For example, "I don't ever want you to touch me again or to make remarks about my sexuality," or "Please withdraw my last evaluation until we can work out a fair one.")

The letter should be delivered either in person or by registered or certified mail. Copies are not sent to campus officers or the press. The writer should keep at least one copy of the letter. (In the unlikely event that it fails to achieve its purpose, the letter can later be used to document retaliation[3] or in support of a formal complaint or lawsuit.)

In most cases, the harasser is often astonished that his behavior is viewed in the way the writer sees it. He may also be fearful of a formal charge, and worry about who else has seen the letter. The letter also seems to be far more powerful than a verbal request--even those who may have ignored verbal requests to stop often respond differently when the request is put into writing. The recipient of the letter rarely writes back; usually he just stops the sexual harassment immediately, and typically does not harass anyone else either.

Occasionally the harasser may want to apologize or discuss the situation. You don't need to discuss it if you don't want to--you can simply reiterate that you want the behavior to stop and it's not necessary to discuss it.

There are many advantages to writing a letter:

- it helps the victim regain a sense of being in control of the situation;
- it often avoids formal charges and a public confrontation;
- it keeps the incident(s) confidential;
- it provides the harasser with a new perspective on his behavior;
- it may minimize or prevent retaliation against the writer;
- it is not necessary to address questions such as legality, confidentiality, evidence, and due process; and
- it usually works.

Other Strategies

- Report the behavior on the course evaluation form. This will alert other members of the campus community such as the chair of the harasser's department, but may not necessarily lead to action.
- Take assertiveness training. These classes can teach you a wide range of behaviors in dealing with uncomfortable situations, such a sexual harassment.

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[3] Any form of retaliation is prohibited to the same extent that sexual harassment is prohibited. In other words, if your school prohibits sexual harassment it also prohibits the sexual harasser from retaliating against anyone who brings charges against him.

- Take a self-defense course. These courses not only teach you a variety of ways to defend yourself physically, they also tend to increase participants' self-confidence and self-esteem.

What Are the Informal Institutional Ways to Deal With Sexual Harassment?

Informal procedures tend to concentrate on conciliation, not sanctions. Sometimes, the situation can be resolved without having to confront your harasser or having him know that it was you who "turned him in." If confidentiality is an issue for you, you must find out the school's policy before you proceed. Informal procedures rarely involve written complaints. Thus, you could go to the chair of the harasser's department or the dean and ask him or her to have a talk with the harasser and tell the harasser to stop his behavior. If you are working, you could ask the harasser's supervisor to have a talk with the harasser and ask him to stop bothering you. In both instances, you are only asking for a stop to the harassment, with the aid of a person in charge. At this informal stage, the victim is not asking for any kind of sanctions against the harasser.

Another informal method, not quite as effective but sometimes useful if you do not want the person in authority to talk specifically with the harasser, is to ask the person in authority to send a letter to the entire department (or to all supervisors) reminding them of the institution's policy against sexual harassment and enclosing a copy of the policy itself.

The advantage of an informal approach is that the situation is more likely to be treated confidentially, and also avoids the details of the more formal procedure. Some students are reluctant to harm the professor who is harassing them (and in fact harming them); groundless as this fear may be, informal procedures do avoid harming the harasser. They are a good way to deal with less serious harassment situations, and when the harasser is willing to change his behavior.

The disadvantage of the informal approach is that it depends on the person handling the complaint to be fair and objective. This is not always the case. Some people may also be discouraged by the lack of formality because they will not always know precisely what the complaint procedure will involve or how the situation will be handled.

What Are Some Things To Keep in Mind?

If you do decide to involve the institution informally, here are some suggestions that you might want to keep in mind:

- What should you do? Report the exact behavior and, if possible, the date(s) on which it occurred.

- What should you ask for? Make it clear that you want the behavior to stop.

- What should you say if the person to whom you talk says you should be able to handle it yourself? You can point out that this is, in fact, not possible (for whatever reason) and that your coming for help was a way in which you hoped to take care of the situation quietly, rather than filing formal charges.

- What should you do it the person to whom you talk is unsympathetic? Keep a record of your talk and consult someone else.

- What if you are nervous about presenting your case to someone in authority? Rehearse with a friend beforehand. You can also take a friend with you.

- Questions to ask:
  - Will they use your name?
  - When will they talk to the harasser?
  - When can you meet with them again to find out what happened when they talked to the harasser?
  - If this doesn't work, what are the formal institutional grievance procedures for filing charges?
  - Is there anything else you should do?

What Are the Formal Institutional Ways to Deal With Sexual Harassment?

If other procedures have failed, you might want to use the "formal route." Using formal procedures may mean that sanctions will be invoked against the harasser, such as being required to make a formal apology, receiving a suspension, paying a fine, or being fired. This necessarily involves several other people, includes some sort of investigation, and in some instances, entails publicity about the incident(s), although the institution usually does not want these incidents publicized. Formal grievance procedures vary from campus to campus and you need to familiarize yourself with your campus' procedures first. You may be asked to be present at the talk to give both of you a chance to tell your side of the story. You do not need to have had repeated instances of sexual harassment in order to bring charges against someone. Be aware that there are usually deadlines involved; if you decide to file formal charges, be sure to do so within the time limit allowed. Generally you have to go through several steps:

- You file a complaint. This usually involves a written description of what occurred.

- A hearing is scheduled to determine if sexual harassment has indeed occurred, the severity of the incident, and if severe sanctions are warranted. This hearing could be before a faculty committee or a committee composed of the top administrators on campus.

- A decision is made concerning what actions, if any, will be taken.

- There may be an appeals process; i.e., the harasser may be able to appeal the decision made.

If you decide to institute formal procedures against a harasser, it helps to have some evidence to back up your claim so it is not just a case of your word against his. For example, this would be the time to show copies of a letter you wrote asking the harasser to stop, or your notes or diary describing the incidents, or to bring witnesses, if any, to the harassment against you. Be sure to mention if you had asked him to stop and he did not.

The advantage of a formal procedure is that you know what you are getting into. If you have had a serious incident occur, this is a serious way to deal with it.

The disadvantage of a formal procedure is that it can be intimidating. Formal procedures often take a great deal of time and are not really equipped to deal with simpler complaints and questions.

What Else Should You Know About Formal Procedures?

Before you get involved in bringing formal charges, it may be helpful to ask some questions first:

- Has anyone used the formal grievance procedure before? What happened?
- Who can help you prepare your case? (For example, the Women's Center)
- Do you need an attorney?
- Can you bring an attorney or other person to the hearing?
- Will you be notified ahead of time if the harasser decides to bring an attorney to the hearing?
- If he brings an attorney to the hearing, will you be cross-examined?
- Will you or your attorney be allowed to cross-examine the harasser?
- What is the time frame involved?
- What kind of publicity will occur?
- What are the sanctions?
- Will you be told what happens to the harasser?

A Word of Caution

Before you take any action to deal with sexual harassment, stop and think. You are not living in a vacuum; virtually any action you take will provoke a reaction. Even when you speak to the harasser and tell him "No" you need to think about how you word it. It is far more effective to say "Stop that, I don't like it" than to say "Get your hands off me, you pervert." Calling people names tends to escalate anger and the situation can get beyond your control quickly. There are two things to be especially aware of:

- Don't get too carried away with revenge; harassers do have rights, too. It may be emotionally satisfying to make every attempt to destroy a harasser's reputation but what is more important is that the harasser stop harassing you and other students. Also, in some instances where the harasser is genuinely unaware of the effects of his actions, and genuinely contrite, it should be enough that he stops. Further action beyond this may be unnecessary.

Are There Any Ways to Discourage Sexual Harassment?

It is not likely that sexual harassment can ever be totally eliminated but it may be possible to cut down the odds of it happening. Although the following list describes some of the things you can do, keep in mind that should sexual harassment occur, it is not your fault.

- If possible, keep the door open when you visit your professor or advisor. Small offices with the door closed can sometimes lead to a "cozy" rather than professional atmosphere. If you feel uncomfortable when the door is closed, you can always say, for example, "Excuse me, but I'd feel more comfortable with the door open" without going into any long explanations.

- Dress neutrally in class and when visiting professors or advisors. Clothing does not cause sexual harassment. However, some men may perceive low-cut tops or skimpy shorts as a sexual invitation even though that is not what it means to the woman wearing such clothes. It might also encourage some males to relate to women physically instead of intellectually. Keep in mind that to some persons any kind of clothing may be viewed as a sexual come-on.

- Avoid any kind of flirtatious behavior with professors. Remember, too, that it is always possible for some men to misinterpret overly friendly behavior as an indication of sexual interest. Professors are no exception. You are generally better off to keep conversations on intellectual, rather than personal, subjects especially when you are first getting to know our professor.

- Beware of threats of retaliatory lawsuits. There have been a few rare instances where women who brought formal accusations of sexual harassment against someone were subsequently threatened by a libel suit by the harasser. In all instances the suits were dropped, partly because it is not libel if the accusation is true.

If You Know Someone Who Is Being Harassed

- Support those having harassment problems. If you know of someone who is having a problem, talk with her and do what you can to help her cope with it. This will lessen her feelings of isolation and will help create an atmosphere on campus that is not conducive to sexual harassment.

- Encourage anyone having harassment problems to take some sort of action, whether by saying "No" or telling someone in authority what is happening. As mentioned previously, it is better for the victim to take some action in order to feel she has some control over her life. Also, because harassers rarely go after a single victim, many people will benefit if the harassing behavior can be stopped.

- Remind them that it is not their fault that they are being harassed.

- Don't accept sexual harassment as "the way things are" or treat it as a joke. "Silence gives consent" when it comes to sexual harassment. The more seriously people treat it, the greater the chances that the harassers will stop their behavior. If there are no consequences to their actions, they will continue.

How to Ensure That Your Institution Is Handling Sexual Harassment Fairly

Questions to ask about your institution:

- Does your institution have a policy dealing with sexual harassment?
- Is it disseminated (and how?) to students, staff, and faculty?
- Is it disseminated to new students, staff, and faculty?
- Are teaching assistants included?
- Is there an informal procedure to help resolve complaints prior to formal charges?
- Is there a formal procedure to help resolve complaints?
- Are there materials prepared especially for men?
- Is there some sort of training to help faculty and staff deal effectively with students who report being sexually harassed?

What You Can Do About Sexual Harassment as a Member of a Group

If you belong to a campus organization, you have several options to help your campus deal with sexual harassment. Here are some ideas:

- Gather data about sexual harassment on your campus; develop a questionnaire and disseminate it to all students.
- Publicize the results of the survey in the student newspaper. Very often people are surprised to find out how much harassment occurs on their campus and may be highly motivated to institute changes when they find out how prevalent it is.
- Organize speak-outs on sexual harassment; have experts give talks on the subject. This not only educates people as to what sexual harassment is and what to do about it, but can also stimulate action on campus to get policies adopted, and grievance procedures against sexual harassment instituted.
- Convene meetings or conferences on sexual harassment. You can have people from other campuses come and share their experiences and strategies.
- Press for an institutional policy concerning sexual harassment if none exists. This is a necessary first step to getting the institution to implement procedures against sexual harassment.
- Lobby for institutional procedures for dealing with sexual harassment if none exist; policy alone is not enough. Having procedures in place frequently acts as a deterrent against sexual harassment.

- Ask for pamphlets, posters, and even bookmarks on the subject of sexual harassment to be included in student and employee orientation. This often prevents sexual harassment from occurring and also sensitizes people to the issue before it occurs. It also helps people deal with it more effectively should they be harassed themselves.

- Encourage training of faculty and staff about sexual harassment and how to deal effectively with students who report instances of sexual harassment. It does no good to encourage students to talk to faculty or staff when they are harassed, if faculty and staff are unprepared to talk with them about it.

What Does the Law Say About Sexual Harassment

In many instances sexual harassment is illegal. If you decide to take legal action instead of or in addition to personal actions or campus procedures, there are several laws which may apply. Whichever course you pursue, however, you must keep in mind that legal definitions of sexual harassment are usually very specific. In other words, you may need some sort of proof of harassment and also it helps (but is not necessary) to have witnesses, if at all possible. Keeping a diary or other record is often acceptable as evidence so that your case is not merely your word against his. If you have written a letter, a copy of that letter will also constitute part of your proof. For example, if you have a letter dated November 3 asking that a professor stop whistling at you and on November 15 you have a witness that he whistled at you again, you should have all the proof you need.

These are the laws that may apply:

- Title IX. Since 1972, Title IX prohibited sexual harassment of students in any part of any higher education institution receiving federal funds. In 1984, the Grove City case narrowed the application of the law considerably. Sexual harassment, a form of sexual discrimination, is prohibited only in those parts or programs of the institution which receive federal funds. In other words, if only the financial aid office receives federal funds, then sexual harassment is prohibited in that office only. The Congress is currently considering passage of a bill that would reinstate the broad coverage of Title IX. For more information, contact the Office for Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, Mary Switzer Building, 330 C Street, SW, Washington, DC 20202.

- Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. According to the guidelines on sexual harassment under Title VII issued in 1980 by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, sexual harassment of employees is prohibited. This applies to students who are harassed when they are working, either on or off campus. For more information, contact the Commission at 2401 E Street, NW, Washington, DC 20507.

- State Laws. Depending on what state you are in, there may be a state law prohibiting sexual harassment. For example, some state civil rights laws prohibit sex discrimination. To find out if there is any applicable state law, contact the following, most of which are located in the state capital:

    - Your state Civil Rights Commission;

- Your state Women's Commission
- Your state Fair Employment Practices Commission which deals with employment discrimination. (These state commissions are independent agencies but most are under contract from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to deal with local complaints of discrimination.)
- The local office of the Office for Civil Rights under the Department of Education
- The local chapter of the National Organization for Women (NOW) or other women's groups might know local organizations or attorneys dealing with discrimination.
- The local chapter of the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) might be able to help; and
- The state Bar Association might be able to refer you to help.

Other Legal Options

- Civil Suit. It is, of course, possible to sue someone who has or is harassing you. Some attorneys will agree to take your case on a percentage basis (for example, if you win any financial damages, your attorney will get 50 percent of your settlement). Generally, civil suits are time-consuming and sometimes there is a risk of a countersuit.

- Criminal Suit. In situations where actual assault or sexual abuse has taken place, a student may be able to bring criminal action against the harasser. You need to talk to a lawyer or someone at the local district attorney's office.

* * *

Sexual harassment on campus is a widespread problem, but ordinarily it is only a tiny minority of the men who are doing the harassing. But these few men can do considerable damage to a number of women. As women become more aware of sexual harassment as a problem, and how it interferes with their academic experience, we hope they will be more active in their resistance to it. If this is done, the incidence can be decreased, the onus can be put squarely on the perpetrators (not the victims), and women can feel safer on campus.

What About Dating Your Professor?*

The best time to date your professor, if at all, is after you have graduated from school. While it is true that some students have been able to date their professors without any problems, this is the exception rather than the rule. Some of the problems inherent in dating your professor are:

- When he has so much power over your grade(s) (and hence your future), it is difficult to have a relationship of equals;

- If your relationship is known to other people and your grades are excellent, some students and faculty may question the validity of your grades and find it hard to take you seriously as a student;

- If your relationship is secret people could still find out about it and again question the validity of your grades. Because you have a personal relationship which is likely to influence your professor's objectivity, you yourself may be unsure of your true academic performance which can lead to self-doubt;

- If the relationship ends badly with a lot of hard feelings on both sides, depending on his position,

  - he could sabotage your grade, or at least leave you wondering if his personal feelings influenced the grade;

  - he could talk about you to other teachers and negatively influence how they perceive you;

  - if he is the only one teaching any courses that you must take, it will be very awkward being in those classes. It will be difficult to ensure that his personal feelings wouldn't affect his behavior toward you in class or at grading time;

  - if he teaches in your major department, you might feel very uncomfortable not only with him but with others in the department as well. Indeed, some women go out of their way to avoid both a professor who is an ex-boyfriend and his department in general, and end up feeling alienated by the whole experience;

  - it would be extremely difficult to use him as a reference for graduate school or for employment;

- Even if the relationship ends amicably it would be difficult to know for sure if your grades were influenced by the professor's personal feelings, and it might still be awkward to be in any of his classes in the future.

* Some schools such as Harvard University, the University of Minnesota, and Hampshire College frown upon student-faculty dating relationships.

Selected Resources

[There is quite a bit written about sexual harassment in the workplace, but not as much concerning sexual harassment on campus. The following is a short selected list of resources specifically dealing with or applicable to sexual harassment in academe. Your library may have other resources.]

The Sexual Harassment Packet by the Project on the Status and Education of Women (PSEW). Includes 6 papers on sexual harassment: "Sexual Harassment: A Hidden Issue," "Selected Articles from 'On Campus With Women, 1982-1985,'" "Title VII Sexual Harassment Guidelines and Education Employment," "What Can Students Do About Sex Discrimination?," "Writing a Letter to the Sexual Harasser: Another Way of Dealing With the Problem," and "Harvard Issues Statement About Sexual Harassment and Related Issues." Available for $5.00 from PSEW, 1818 R Street, NW, Washington, DC 20009.

The Lecherous Professor, Sexual Harassment on Campus by Billie Wright Dzeich and Linda Wirner, 1984, 219 pages. Available for $16.95 from Beacon Press, 25 Beacon Street, Boston, MA 02108.

Sexual Harassment: A Report on the Sexual Harassment of Students by Frank J. Till, 1980. Available free from the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs (NACWEP), 2000 L Street, NW, Suite 568, Washington, DC 20036.

Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, Winter 1983, Vol. 46, No. 2. The entire issue is devoted to sexual harassment on campus. Available for $7.50 from NAWDAC, 1325 18th Street, NW, Suite 210, Washington, DC 20036.

"When Professors Swap Good Grades for Sex," by Noel Epstein, *The Washington Post*, Sept. 6, 1981.

"Harassment on Campus: Sex in a Tenured Position," by Anne Field, *MS Magazine*, Sept. 1981, p. 68.

Funding for this paper and for the Project's general activities is made possible by a grant from The Ford Foundation. Individual copies of this paper are available for $2.00 (prepaid) from the Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, NW, Washington, DC 20009, (202) 387-1300. Bulk rates are available. (A list of all Project publications is available free with a self-addressed, stamped envelope.)

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DPI PUBLISHES "WISCONSIN MODEL FOR SEX EQUITY IN CAREER AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION"

MADISON--Despite the strides made toward sex equity in the past two decades, society still hasn't overcome some biases.

How these biases affect our children is evidenced by the results of a 1988 statewide career survey, in which only 13 percent of the girls reported that they would consider a career in science or engineering. At the same time, 47 percent of the girls said they would consider becoming a nurse, while only 5 percent of the boys would.

To help schools achieve the goal of equal outcomes of vocational education for all students, the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction has published the "Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education."

"The Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity will help educators implement a long-range, systematic approach to sex equity," said State Superintendent Herbert J. Grover. "It is designed to accommodate local needs and conditions and is adaptable throughout the nation."

The guide's authors, Barbara Bitters, DPI vocational equity administrator, and Susan Foxwell, UW-Stout CVTAE project director, point out that the model is comprehensive in scope and designed for use at the local level. It also:

- provides educators with the tools and resources they need to implement a sex equity program on a minimal budget.
- focuses on achieving equity in student competencies, composition of school staff, and school actions.
- provides benchmarks and standards to help educators interpret their equity assessments.
- offers advice, ideas, examples, cautions, and extensive resources.

Wisconsin prohibits pupil discrimination on the basis of sex and other characteristics. However, subtle and unintentional biases--more difficult to identify and overcome than overt ones--may persist. "Even when unintentional," Grover said, "bias can have severe effects on a child's education, self-esteem, preparation for occupational and family roles, and future economic self-sufficiency.

"Excellence through equity is a crucial consideration in light of the great changes in social roles, responsibilities, and expectations for men and women over the past 20 years," Grover added.

The five-phase model described in the book provides school district administrators and staff step-by-step guidance as they develop and implement equity programs. It was pilot tested in 10 school districts between 1985 and

1988, and its surveys have been reviewed by the University of Wisconsin-Extension's Survey Research Laboratory.

The "Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education" (Bulletin Number 0480) is available for $10 plus tax in Wisconsin and $20 outside the state. Send prepaid (Visa/MasterCard or check) orders to Publication Sales, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Drawer 179, Milwaukee, WI 53293-0179. Place VISA/MC orders via a toll-free call: (800) 243-8782.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction • Herbert J. Grover, State Superintendent

WISCONSIN VOCATIONAL EQUITY NEWS

Volume 4, Number 1 Fall/Winter 1990

WELCOME

The Wisconsin Vocational Equity News, to be published in the fall and spring of the 1990-91 school year, provides information of interest on equity issues for Wisconsin educators. Submission of articles and reports of equity activities at the local level are encouraged and would be appreciated. Contact: Linda Riley, Editor, Vocational Equity Leadership Project, UW-Stout, 218 Applied Arts Building, Menomonie, WI 54751.

EQUITY LEADERSHIP PROJECT

The primary goal of the Equity Leadership Project, formerly the CESA Support and Networking Project, is to promote vocational gender equity in Wisconsin. It is funded by the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction through the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Act. Linda Riley replaced Susan Foxwell as project director on August 1, 1990.

The Equity Leadership Project serves 12 CESA consortium projects statewide through providing technical assistance and resources to CESA coordinators and local district staff, planning and coordinating leadership development and training opportunities, assisting in planning and implementing a statewide conference, and assisting approximately 150 new and continuing schools to implement the Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity. Additionally, the project will explore the development of a statewide promotional program for gender equity.

Forty-two people attended the first Wisconsin Gender Equity Cadre meeting which was held on September 18-19, 1990, at Wisconsin Dells. Participants explored a variety of issues including: The History of Equity, Equity and Educational Outcomes, Women and Work, Equity Training Models, Multi-Cultural Education, Issues for Gay and Lesbian Youth, and Quality Improvement.

On November 15-16, 1990, the Annual Statewide Sex Equity Conference was held at the Holiday Inn in Stevens Point, featuring general session speakers Kent Koppelman, UW-La Crosse; Lee Anne Bell, State University of New York; and, Craig Flood, Director, New York State Occupational Education Equity Center.

A preconference training workshop, Power Teaching, was held on November 14, 1990. Shirley McCune, Senior Director, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, addressed the complex process of teaching diverse groups of students.

The cadre will meet again on March 5-6, 1991.

IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS THAT ENCOURAGE AND DISCOURAGE WOMEN IN MALE-DOMINATED PROGRAMS IN THE SCHOOL OF INDUSTRY AND TECHNOLOGY PROJECT

This recently completed project was funded by the Stout Foundation to address the imbalance of women in male-dominated programs in the School of Industry and Technology (SIT). A sample of presently enrolled male and female students and female alumni were survey to determine their perceptions of courses, guidance, fellow students, faculty, and general environment in SIT. Women were interested in industrial technology fields because of the potential for career/economic advancement and in the challenge provided by a nontraditional occupation. However, the male-dominated classrooms and labs tended to generate feelings of inadequacy and lacked support for the female student. Often noted was the increased time needed to gain the trust and respect of the instructor in the classroom setting. Several recommendations were made including those from the advisory committee who reviewed the results. Howard Lee, (715) 232-1251, has more information on this project.

CADRE MEMBERS TO PRESENT AT WASB CONVENTION

Wisconsin Gender Equity Cadre members John Cavanaugh, Susan Drinkwine, and Mary Mueller's panel session proposal to the Wisconsin Association of School Boards Convention has been selected for presentation on Thursday, January 24, 1991, from 2-3:15 p.m.

The panel will present information on gender difference in male/female self-esteem and self-perception, differing interaction patterns and expectations between teachers and their students (boys vs. girls), and what the research has to say about gender performance on tests, attitudes towards school subjects, work preparation, and career exploration and selection. The session will include an overview of school district compliance with Title IX, and Wisconsin Statutes 118.13, the Pupil Non-Discrimination Law, both as to the intent as well as the letter of the law. Finally, the panelists will discuss the recently released Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education and how this model has been utilized in volunteer Wisconsin school districts in their efforts to evaluate ongoing efforts to provide students with an equitable education.

Please encourage your school board members to attend.

"REFLECTIONS OF RISK"

The information for the report came from an adolescent health survey conducted during the 1986-87 school year by researchers at the University of Minnesota's Adolescent Health Program, in conjunction with the Minnesota Departments of Education and Health. Over 36,000 public school students in grades 7 through 12 participated in the survey during the 1986-87 school year.

"Reflections of Risk" includes recommendations for changing the factors that seem to be putting Minnesota's teenage girls "at risk" for behaviors that may not lead to productive, healthy lives as adults. To develop the recommendations, the Women's Fund convened a group including teachers, policy makers, advocates, and health and social service professionals. Some of these recommendations are included in this article, along with a summary of the survey's findings.

OVERVIEW OF FINDINGS

Researchers analyzing the answers given by the teenagers in the Adolescent Health Survey concluded that boys and girls react differently to the world.

Girls tend not to seek help when they need it. When problems arise, girls often direct them inward, developing self-destructive behaviors such as a negative image of their body, eating disorders, emotional stress, and attempts at suicide. The report labels these behavior patterns as "quietly disturbed" and notes that these types of psychological behaviors can often go unnoticed by adults.

In contrast, boys tend to "act out" their problems, resulting in alcohol abuse, drug abuse, accidental injury, and delinquency. These behaviors are more likely to attract the attention of adults and the boys, therefore, eventually get help, the report finds.

ABUSE

Four times as many girls as boys reported having been physically or sexually abused. About 15 percent of junior high and almost 25 percent of senior high girls reported that someone in their lives had abused them physically, sexually, or both. In contrast, four percent of junior high and six percent of senior high boys reported abuse, most of it physical.

SUICIDE

A higher percentage of girls reported having attempted suicide than did boys, although other studies have shown that more boys than girls carry through with suicide. Of all 12th grade students, twice as many girls (18 percent) indicated that they had attempted suicide at least once as did boys (nine percent). Additionally, girls who have attempted suicide are more likely than the boys to say they think seriously about trying again.

FAMILY CONNECTEDNESS

More girls than boys say that they feel disconnected from their families. "Connectedness" in the survey was defined as "the extent to which a student feels emotionally connected to her family members, and feels that her family cares about her." If girls rely on anyone for "support, validation, and advice," it is more often their peers than their parents, they said.

STRESS LEVELS

Close to twice as many girls as boys say that they are under high or very high levels of stress. Twenty-five percent of junior high and over 33 percent of senior high girls fall into the highest stress categories, compared with 13 percent of junior high and 20 percent of senior high boys.

BODY IMAGE

Almost three times as many girls as boys have a negative image of their own bodies. Thirty percent of junior high and 40 percent of senior high girls view their bodies negatively, compared with 12 percent of junior high and 15 percent of senior high boys.

WEIGHT

Weight is a key factor in girls' view of themselves. Girls are more likely than boys to say that they are overweight, even though they are within normal weight or even underweight based on average weight tables for reported height. Specifically, 51 percent of the girls said that they were overweight as compared to 18 percent of the boys.

EATING DISORDERS

Over-concern about weight issues can lead to common but serious eating disorders, such as bulimia and/or anorexia nervosa. Based on answers to survey questions regarding body image and weight image, researchers calculated the likelihood of developing eating disorders. Compared with boys their own age, five times as many junior high and nine times as many senior high girls fall into the high risk category for eating disorders. Further, almost twice as many girls fall into the moderate risk category.

Ten percent of junior high and 16 percent of senior high girls reported having been on 10 or more diets in the previous year. Almost one-third of all females reported having had episodes of overeating followed by induced vomiting. Finally, 14 percent say they vomit after eating at least once a month.

PREGNANCY RISK

The survey revealed that boys are somewhat more likely than girls to be at "moderate to high risk for pregnancy"--that is, a greater percentage of boys are likely to engage in frequent, unprotected sex and risk impregnating someone, than girls are likely to get pregnant.

Six percent of junior high and 21 percent of senior high boys fell into the high risk category for pregnancy, compared with 3 percent of junior high and 18 percent of senior high girls. Other studies have shown that about 10 percent of adolescent females in Minnesota become pregnant each year.

SEXUAL ACTIVITY

The reason more adolescent boys are at high risk for pregnancy than girls is that a greater percentage are engaging in sexual intercourse. Among adolescents, sexual activity is greater for younger boys than for younger girls, but this reverses by the 12th grade level, when a greater percentage of girls than boys reported having had sexual intercourse. The average age for first intercourse in Minnesota is about 14 for boys and 14 and a half for girls.

CONCLUSIONS

An analysis of the survey's findings conclude that about 80 percent of all Minnesota girls are at high risk for developing one of the "quietly disturbed" behaviors such as negative body image, eating disorders, emotional stress, and suicide. There is also a correlation between those who may have more than two of these types of problems and the likelihood that the girls may also develop such problems as drug abuse, accident risk, absenteeism, delinquency, and pregnancy. Sixty-five percent of girls in the quietly "disturbed" group also "act out" in these ways.

Researchers found, however, that certain life experiences reported by the teenagers can reduce the risk of developing these problems. They include good school performance, feeling connected to family, low levels of family stress, high levels of religiousness, and the ability to seek the help of parents.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The survey's recommendations for preventing these types of problems in teenage girls include:

- school curricula that focus on the contributions, accomplishments and concerns of women from diverse ethnic and racial groups;
- programs to increase girls' skills in math;
- peer counseling programs to help girls break their isolation and get help;
- more personal and educational choices for girls;
- more opportunities for economic independence and professional success;
- preventing violence against females;
- preventing teen pregnancy;
- providing financial and community support for families;
- replacing negative media images of females with more realistic ones; and
- increasing funding for programs specifically for girls and women.

Source: Minnesota Commission on the Economic Status of Women, Newsletter #152, July 1990

NEW WISCONSIN MODEL FOR SEX EQUITY

The recently released Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education, developed by Susan Foxwell, UW-Stout, and Barbara Bitters, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, is scheduled for dissemination to all Wisconsin school districts in the near future. In accordance with DPI policy, the publication will be sent to the District Administrator through CESAs.

The model presented in the guide provides school district administrators and staff with the direction they will need to develop and implement a comprehensive program to achieve sex equity at the local level. It provides educators with the tools and resources necessary for assessment and planning, implementation, and evaluation, and focuses on the achievement of equity by students as well as school districts and school personnel.

The model was pilot tested in three school districts and field tested in seven school districts in Wisconsin. The student and staff surveys used for assessment were reviewed and validated by the University of Wisconsin Extension's Survey Research Laboratory.

To obtain a copy of the Wisconsin Model for Sex Equity in Career and Vocational Education, send your prepaid order (VISA/MasterCard or Check) to: Publication Sales, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Drawer 179, Milwaukee, WI 53293-0179 or order via a toll-free call: 800/243-8782. The cost is $10 plus tax in Wisconsin and $20 for out of state.

JUNIOR HIGH BROCHURES IDENTIFIED AS MOST HELPFUL FOR PROMOTING GENDER EQUITY

During the fall meeting of the Wisconsin Gender Equity Cadre, participants were surveyed to ascertain what kinds of promotional materials they would find most helpful in promoting gender equity. Survey items included student, parent, and community brochures; posters, statewide theme and logo, and public service announcements.

Student brochures were identified most often with 100 percent of survey participants identifying brochures at the junior high level as most helpful. Statewide public service announcements and community brochures were identified as least helpful.

Specific survey results were as follows:

Promotional Activity		Percent of Respondents Selecting as Helpful
Statewide theme/logo/slogan		66
Statewide PS announcement		33
Student brochures -	Primary	66
	Intermediate	77
	Junior High	100
	Senior High	66
Parent brochures		55
Community brochures		33
Posters -	Elementary School	55
	Junior High	66
	Senior High	66
	Community	44

The Equity Leadership project and cadre members will continue to explore ideas for promoting gender equity in the State of Wisconsin.

Vocational Equity News is published by the Center for Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, University of Wisconsin-Stout, 218 Applied Arts Building, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751 (715) 232-1885, through a Carl A. Perkins Vocational Education grant from the Bureau for Vocational Education, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Herbert J. Grover, State Superintendent. Contact person: Linda Riley, Project Director/Editor. Volume 4, Number 1, Fall//winter, 1990. UW-Stout and DPI are equal opportunity and affirmative action employers and educators and do not discriminate on the basis of race, sex, age, religion, sexual orientation, handicap, national origin or ancestry.

COURSE COMPETENCIES

Describe various alcohol and other drug abuse problems as they relate to the student and the learning environment.

- Identify and discuss the effects of alcohol and drug use on individuals as they relate to the learning environment.
- Describe supportive services available through the school, community, and state.
- Modify the teaching/learning environment to improve the success of the student.
- Describe the effects of alcohol and other drug abuse problems in the labor market.

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Leslee Hebein
AODA Specialist

OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. Arrange an appointment with the AODA specialist to discuss specific areas of observation based on the course competencies and objectives which will help you to create an awareness and sensitivity to individuals with alcohol and drug problems.
2. Share your findings with the course facilitator at the second progress/sharing time.
3. Read the following pages from the course manual:

   E-1 to E-27

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ALCOHOL AND OTHER DRUG ABUSE

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"WHAT'S HAPPENING AND WHAT CAN HAPPEN: ADDRESSING ALCOHOL AND OTHER DRUG PROBLEMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION"

by Ross J. Rapaport, Ph.D., NCC
Associate Professor of Counseling
Coordinator, Alcohol and Drug Abuse
Intervention and Prevention Program
Counseling Center
102 Foust Hall
Central Michigan University
Mt. Pleasant, MI 48859
(517) 774-3381

As the old man walked on the beach at dawn, he noticed a young man ahead of him picking up starfish and flinging them into the sea. Finally catching up with the youth, he asked him why. The answer was that the stranded starfish would die if left until the morning sun. "But the beach goes for miles and there are millions of starfish," countered the old man. "How can your effort make any difference?" The young man looked at the starfish in his hand and then threw it to safety in the waves. "It makes a difference to this one," he said.

- Minnesota Literacy Council

Michigan Consortium on Substance Abuse Education
Annual Spring Meeting and Conference,
Substance Abuse Prevention on Michigan College
and University Campuses
March 16-17, 1989
Lansing, MI

Revised for the
American College Personnel Association
Preconference Workshop
"Building a Comprehensive Response to
Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse on the
College Campus,"
Tuesday, March 28, 1989

SELECTED ORGANIZATIONS AND RESOURCES

SADD - Michigan
P.O. Box 1073
Mt. Clemons, MI 48046
(313) 286-8800, ext. 243

National Clearinghouse for Alcohol and Drug Information (NCADI)
P.O. Box 2345
Rockville, MD 20852
(301) 486-2600

Rutgers University
Center of Alcohol Studies

Contact: Penny Page, Librarian
Smithers Hall, Bush Campus
Piscataway, NJ 08854

Gail Milgrim, Division of Education and Training
Room 301, Van Nest Hall
New Brunswick, NJ 08903
(201) 932-2190

Resources for Responsible Drinking

Contact: Distilled Spirits Council of the United States, Inc.
1250 Eye Street, NW, Suite 900
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 628-3544

The U.S. Journal of Drug and Alcohol Dependence

Contact: U.S. Journal, Inc.
The Enterprise Center
3201 SW 15th Street
Deerfield Beach, FL 33442

The following are free or low-cost resources (compiled by Spencer Deakin and Tim Malloy)

- Free Radio and Print Ads
  Partnership for a Drug Free America
  Teresa Quinlan
  c/o American Association of Advertising Agencies
  666 Third Avenue
  New York, NY 10017

- "S.O.S. Peer Facilitator Manual and S.O.S. Peer Trainer's Manual," $14.00 both
  Southern Illinois University at Carbondale
  S.O.S. Drug Prevention Program
  Wellness Center
  Carbondale, IL 62901

293

- VHS Video, "Fraternity Liability and Risk Management," $20 each
  Sigma Phi Epsilon
  P.O.Box 1901
  Richmond, VA 23215

- "Drugs and Drug Abuse, A Reference Text, 2nd ed.," $29.50
  Marketing Services
  Dept. 500
  Addiction Research Foundation
  33 Russell Street
  Toronto, CANADA M5S 2S1

- "Fresh Start: 21 Days to Quit Smoking," $29.95
  S & S Video
  1230 Avenue of the Americas
  New York, NY 10020

- "AIDS - Can I Get It?" $9.95 + $2.00 shipping and handling
  Light Video Television, Inc.
  21 Highland Circle
  Needham Heights, MA 02194

- "Cocaine: A Deadly Elective," $40.00
  Health Education Office
  204 Brackenridge Hall
  University of Pittsburgh
  Pittsburgh, PA 15260

- "Hazing on Trial," $30.00
  ATØ Fraternity
  Attn: Darlene
  4001 W. Kirby Avenue
  Champaign, IL 61821

Wisconsin Clearinghouse
Dept. FH
P.O. Box 1468
Madison, WI 53701

F.I.P.S.E. Project Cork
Dartmouth College Health Service
    and the Project Cork Institute
Hanover, NH 03756

BOOKS AND PUBLISHERS

1. Hazelden Health Promotion (800) 257-7800 or (612) 349-43110 in MN.

   - Excellent resource for a wide variety of alcohol and other drug materials

2. Johnson Institute (800) 231-5165 or (800) 247-0484 in MN.

   - Excellent resource for a wide variety of alcohol and other drug materials

3. A winning combination: An alcohol, other drug, and traffic safety handbook for college campuses. Call Hazelden for a free copy.

   - Good resource which covers many aspects of a comprehensive student alcohol and other drug program. Some issues are missing including adult children from dysfunctional families and enabling.

4. Rivinus, T. M. (1988). Alcoholism/chemical dependency and the college student [special issue]. Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 2(3/4). (ISBN: 8756-8225, The Haworth Press, Inc., 12 W. 32nd Street, New York, New York, 10001)

   - Excellent and up-to-date resource on alcohol and other drug issues as pertains to college students. There are chapters of particular interest to college counselors who wish to sharpen chemical dependency assessment and referral skills.

5. Dean, J. C., & Bryan, W. A. (1982). Alcohol programming for higher education. Carbondale, IL: ACPA Press. (ACPA Media, Southern Illinois University Press, Post Office Box 3697, Carbondale, IL 62901)

   - This book is still an excellent and brief overview of a comprehensive campus alcohol program which includes student, faculty, and staff assistance efforts. It is almost out of print.

6. Thoreson, R. W., & Hosokaw, E. P. (Eds.) (1984). Employee assistance programs in higher education. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas (ISBN: Springfield, Illinois, 62717)

   - This book provides an excellent discussion on what can be done to address faculty and staff chemical dependency problems. Employee assistance program development and implementation and political issues are among the topics considered.

7. Alcohol and other substance abuse: Resources for institutional action. Office on Self-Regulation Initiatives, American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036-1193.

   - This is a publication from the self-regulation arm of the American Council on Education that anyone who is trying to develop institutional support for campus-wide alcohol and other drug programming efforts should have.

8. Sunburst Drug Education Videocassettes and filmstrips. (800) 431-1934.

   - Relatively inexpensive videotapes on a wide range of alcohol and other drug issues. Instructional manuals accompany the videotapes.

9. Health Science (800) 257-5126.

   - Relatively inexpensive videotapes on a wide range of alcohol and other drug topics.

10. Burns, W. D., & Sloane, D. C. (eds.) (1987). Students, alcohol, and college health: A special issue [Special Issue]. Journal of American College Health, 36(2). (Heldref Publications, 4000 Albemarle Street, NW, Washington, DC 20016)

    - A number of excellent articles which address college student alcohol usage from a health perspective.

11. Goodale, T. G., (ed.) (1986). Alcohol and the college student. New Direction for Student Services, (35). (Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 433 California Street, San Francisco, CA 94104)

    - Good overview of relevant issues as pertain to college student alcohol use.

12. Sherwood, J. (Ed.) (1987). Alcohol policies and practices on college and university campuses. NASPA Monograph Series, (7). (ISBN-0-931654-09-2)

    - This is a very important resource for individuals who are developing campus alcohol policies.

13. Rapaport, R. J., & Eberly, C. G., (Eds.) (1988) [Special Issue]. Michigan Journal of Counseling and Development, 18(2). (MACD, Box 190, St. Johns, MI 48879)

    - This publication is an example of a special issue of a state journal which can be devoted, at least partially, to state specific discussion of how colleges and universities can address alcohol and other drug problems.

14. BACCHUS of the United States, Inc. and The Inter-Association Task Force on Campus Alcohol Issues. (1986). First National Conference on Campus Alcohol Policy Initiatives. Washington, DC: Author. (Contact BACCHUS of the U.S. Inc., P.O. Box 10430, Denver, CO 80210 (303) 871-3068)

    - This is another very important resource for anyone working in the campus policy area.

QUESTIONS

1. Do you know anyone who has experienced an alcohol-related crash?

2. Do you know anyone who has been injured/killed in an alcohol-related crash? Automobile? Boating?

3. Have you ever had too much to drink and then driven a car?

4. Have you ever ridden with someone who has had too much to drink?

5. Do you know anyone:

    - Who has an alcohol problem?

    - Whose academic performance has been interfered with due to alcohol use?

    - Who has left school due to alcohol problems?

    - Who has gotten into a sexual situation that normally would not have because of drinking?

    - Whose alcohol interfered with other parts of life?

6. Do you know anyone who comes from an alcoholic home?

7. Have you ever:

    - Taken a class from a person you suspected of having an alcohol problem?

    - Worked with, worked for, or supervised someone you suspected of having an alcohol problem?

8. Do you know anyone you suspect of being in trouble due to their use of drugs other than alcohol?

9. Do you know someone who has gone through treatment for an alcohol or other drug problem? Relapsed? Done well?

10. Do you know someone you would consider a healthy model of alcohol use? Who does not have problems due to their use of alcohol?

We are all touched, in one way or another, by alcohol misuse (and the use of other drugs).

DRUG AND ALCOHOL RESOURCES

College-based Resources

Johnston, L.; O'Malley, P.; Bachman, J. Illicit Drug Use, Smoking, and Drinking by America's High School Students, College Students, and Young Adults. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, NCADI (ADM) 89-1602. 1988.

U.S. Department of Transportation. A Winning Combination: An Alcohol, Other Drug, and Traffic Safety Handbook for College Campuses. Hazelden Health Promotion Services, 1400 Park Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55404-1597. (800-257-7800) 1988.

American Council on Education. Self-Regulation Initiatives: Resource Documents for Colleges and Universities. Alcohol and Other Substance Abuse: Resources for Institutional Action. ACE, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036-1193. August 1988.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Approaches to Drug Abuse Prevention at Colleges and Universities. A collection of presentations made at the National Collegiate Drug Awareness Week Kick-Off Conference. 1988.

Journal of American College Health - Students, Alcohol, and College Health: A Special Issue. 36:2; September 1987. c/o Heldref Publications, 4000 Albemarle Street, NW, Washington, DC 20016.

Related Resources

U.S. Department of Education. Report to Congress and the White House on the Nature and Effectiveness of Federal, State, and Local Drug Prevention/Education Programs. October 1987. NCADI

National Clearinghouse for Alcohol and Drug Information (NCADI). NCADI Publications Catalog P.O. Box 2345, Rockville, Maryland 20852. (301-468-2600)

National Commission Against Drunk Driving. Youth Driving Without Impairment: A Community Challenge. 1140 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 804, Washington, DC 20036. (202-452-0130) 1988.

National Drug Policy Board. Toward A Drug-Free America: The National Drug Strategy and Implementation Plans. Supt. of Documents, U.S. GPO, Washington, DC 20402. 1988.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Drug Abuse and Drug Abuse Research: The Second Triennial Report to Congress from the Secretary. DHHS Publication No. (ADM) 87-1486. 1987.

U.S. General Accounting Office. Controlling Drug Abuse: A Status Report. Post Office Box 6015, Gaithersburg, MD 20877. (202-275-6241) GAO/GGD-88-39. 1988.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Sixth Special Report to the U.S. Congress on Alcohol and Health. (ADM) 87-1519. January 1987.

The White House Conference for a Drug Free America. Final Report. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. 88-600553. June 1988.

U.S. Department of Education. Schools Without Drugs. Contact: Schools Without Drugs, Pueblo, CO 81009. (1-800-624-0100) 1987

Compiled by: David S. Anderson, Ph.D.
Substance Abuse Specialist
1000 N. Arlington Mill Drive
Arlington, VA 22205
(703) 237-3840

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Addiction Research Foundation
33 Russell Street
Toronto, Ontario M6S 2S1
CANADA

Al-Anon Family Group Headquarters
Box 182, Madison Square Station
New York, NY 10010

Alateen
Box 182, Madison Square Station
New York, NY 10010

Alcohol and Drug Abuse Educ. Prog.
U.S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue SW
Washington, DC 20001

Alcohol Research Information Service
1120 E. Oakland Avenue
Lansing, MI 48906

Alcoholics Anonymous
Box 459, Grand Central Station
New York, NY 10017

Alliance of American Insurers
1501 Woodfield Road
Schaumburg, IL 60195

American Academy of Pediatrics
1801 Hinman
Evanston, IL 60202

American Automobile Association
Alcohol Education Programs
Traffic Safety Department
8111 Gatehouse Road
Falls Church, VA 22047

American Business Men's Research
1208 Michigan National Tower
Lansing, MI 48933

American College
of Emergency Physicians
P.O. Box 137
Highland Springs, VA 23075

American Council for Drug Education
5820 Hubbard Drive
Rockville, MD 20852

American Council on Alcohol Prob.
2908 Patricia Drive
Des Moines, IA 50322

American Driver and Traffic Safety
Education Association
123 N. Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314

American Medical Association
Safety Education Department
535 N. Dearborn Street
Chicago, IL 60610

American Med. Society on Alcoholism
12 W. 21st Street, 7th Floor
New York, NY 10010

American Red Cross
National Headquarters
Youth Services Division
17th and D Streets, NW
Washington, DC 20006

Assoc. of Halfway House Alcoholism
Progs. of North America (AHHAP)
786 E. Seventh Street
St. Paul, MN 55106

Association of Labor Management
Administrators & Consultants
on Alcoholism
1800 N. Kent Street, Suite 907
Arlington, VA 22209

The Beer Institute
1750 K Street, NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20006

Boost Alcohol Consciousness
Concerning Health of
University Students (BACCHUS)
P.O. Box 1197
Washington, DC 20013

Center for Science in the Public
Interest (CSPI)
1501 - 16th Street NW
Washington, DC 20036

Charlotte Drug Education Center
1416 E. Morehead Street
Charlotte, NC 28204

Children of Alcoholics Foundation
(COAF)
540 Madison Avenue, 23rd Floor
New York, NY 10022

Citizens Council on Women, Alcohol,
and Drugs
8293 Main Street
Ellicott City, MD 21043

Council on Alcohol Policy
222 Willamette Street
Berkeley, CA 94708

Distilled Spirits Council of
the United States (DISCUS)
1250 I Street NW
Suite 9000
Washington, DC 20004

Doctors Ought to Care (DOC)
Dept. of Family Medicine
Medical College of Georgia
Augusta, GA 30912

Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA)
President's Drug Awareness Campaign
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, DC 20537

800-COCAINE
Fair Oaks Hospital
19 Prospect Street
Summit, NJ 07901

Families in Action
3845 N. Druid Hills Road
Suite 300
Decatur, GA 30033

Freedom from Chemical Dependency
Foundation
26 Cross Street
Needham, MA 02194

Hazelden Health Promotion Services
1400 Park Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55404-1597

Highway Users Federation
1766 Massachusetts Avenue NW
Washington, DC 20036

Insurance Information Institute
110 Williams Street
New York, NY 10038

International Council on Alcohol &
Addiction/American Foundation
ICAA/American
P.O. Box 489
Locust Valley, NY 11560

The Johnson Institute
10700 Olson Memorial Highway
Minneapolis, MN 55441

Mothers Against Drunk Drivers (MAD
669 Airport Freeway, #310
Hurst, TX 76053

Minnesota Prevention Resource Ctr.
2829 Verndale Avenue
Anoka, MN 55303

Multi-Cultural Prevention Work Group
Allegheny County MHMR/DA Program
429 Forest Avenue, 9th Floor
Pittsburgh, PA 15219

National Association for Children
of Alcoholics
P.O. Box 421691
San Francisco, CA 94142

National Association of Alcoholism
and Drug Abuse Counselors
951 S. George Mason Drive
Arlington, VA 22204

National Association of Alcoholism
Treatment Programs, Inc. (NAATP)
2082 Michelson Drive
Irvine, CA 92715

National Association of Governors'
Highway Safety Representatives
444 N. Capitol Street NW
Suite 524
Washington, DC 20001

National Association of Secondary
School Principals
Division of Student Activities
1904 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

National Association of State
Alcohol and Drug Abuse Directors
444 N. Capitol Street NW
Suite 520
Washington, DC 20001

National Black Alcoholism Council
417 S. Dearborn Street
Suite 700
Chicago, IL 60605

National Nurses Society on Addiction
2506 Gross Point Road
Evanston, IL 60201

National Child Passenger Safety Assoc.
P.O. Box 841
Ardmore, PA 19003

National Clearinghouse for Alcohol
and Information (NCADI)
Box 2345
Rockville, MD 20852

National Council on Alcoholism (NCA)
12 W. 21st Street, 7th Floor
New York, NY 10010

National Federation of Parents (NFP)
for Drug-Free Youth
8730 Georgia Avenue
Suite 200
Silver Spring, MD 20910

National Highway Traffic Safety
Administration
Office of Alcohol and State Programs
NTS-21
400 Seventh Street SW
Washington, DC 20590

National Institute on Alcohol Abuse
and Alcoholism
Parklawn Building
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, MD 20852

National Institute on Drug Abuse
Parklawn Building
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, MD 20852

National Licensed Beverage Assoc.
309 N. Washington Street
Alexandria, VA 22314

National PTA, Alcohol Educ. Project
700 N. Rush Street
Chicago, IL 60611

National Restaurant Association
311 First Street NW
Washington, DC 20001

National Safety Council
444 N. Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60601

Pacific Inst. for Research & Eval.
JUST SAY NO
7101 Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 612
Bethesda, MD 20184

Parent Resources Inst. on Drug Educ.
Suite 1216
Woodruff Building
100 Edgewood Avenue NE
Atlanta, GA 30303

Pharmacists Against Drug Abuse
Foundation
P.O. Box 776
Spring House, PA 19477

Remove Intoxicated Drivers
P.O. Box 520
Schenectady, NY 12301

Research Society on Alcoholism (RSA)
University of Illinois Medical Center
P.O. Box 6998
Chicago, IL 60680

Rutgers Center of Alcohol Studies
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, NJ 08903

Traffic Safety Now Inc.
Motor Vehicles Manufacturers Assoc.
1620 I Street NW
Washington, DC 20006

U.S. Government Printing Office
Superintendent of Documents
Washington, DC 20402

Wisconsin Clearinghouse for Alcohol
  and Other Drug Information
1954 E. Washington Avenue
Madison, WI 53704

QUICK SUMMARY OF FEDERAL DRUG LEGISLATION WHICH IMPACTS INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

I. Federal Financial Aid Law Requirement (Title IV of the Higher Education Amendment of 1986. P.L. 99-498).

Requires institutions to certify that they have in operation a drug abuse prevention program that is determined by the institution to be accessible to any officer, employee, or student at the institution.

The conference report emphasizes that this requirement should not be construed to direct or permit the Secretary to promulgate any rules or regulations relating to the content or conduct of the drug abuse prevention program.

EFFECTIVE: Periods of enrollment beginning on or after July 1, 1987, 487(a) (10), H. 7978.

II. Drug Free Workplace Act (from Milton Goldberg, Council on Government Relations, Nov. 1, 1988 Memo)

On October 21, 1988, Congress passed the Omnibus Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988 which contained the House and Senate compromise provisions of H.R. 5210, The Drug Free Workplace Act of 1988. The Act requires that recipients of federal funds provide a drug-free workplace by:

A. Publishing a statement notifying employees that the unlawful manufacture, distribution, dispensation, possession or use of illegal drugs is prohibited in the workplace, and specifying the actions that will be taken against employees for violations of such prohibition;

B. Establishing a drug-free awareness program to inform employees about the dangers of drug abuse in the workplace, the organization's policy of maintaining a drug-free workplace, any available drug counseling, rehabilitation, and employee assistance programs, and the penalties that may be imposed upon employees for drug abuse violations;

C. Making it a requirement that each employee to be engaged in the performance of a federal grant or contract be given a copy of the statement required by A. above;

D. Notifying the employee in the statement required by A. above that as a condition of employment on such grant or contract the employee will abide by the terms of the statement, and notify the employer of any criminal drug statute conviction for a violation occurring in the workplace not later than five days after such conviction;

E. Notifying the granting or contracting agency within ten days after receiving notice of criminal drug statute conviction under paragraph D. above;

F. Imposing a sanction on, or requiring the satisfactory participation in a drug abuse assistance or rehabilitation program by, any employee who is so convicted as required under this Act; and

G. Making a good faith effort to continue to maintain a drug-free workplace through implementation of these requirements.

Failure to fulfill these requirements could lead to suspension, termination, or debarment from future contracts and grants.

III. The Defense Department Rule on the "Drug-Free Work Force." (From Lawrence White, "The Application of Drug-Free Workplace" Laws to Institutions of Higher Learning, Feb. 9, 1989.)

A. The DOD Rule is legally distinct from the anti-drug legislation enacted in 1988. It was promulgated almost two months before enactment of the Drug-Free Workplace Act pursuant to statutes authorizing the Pentagon to engage in very general rulemaking authority. The DOD Rule supplements the Drug-Free Workplace Act and implementing regulations; it does not substitute for the Act and OMB regulations. In other words, if your institution receives contract or grant money from DOD, you must comply with both the Drug-Free Workplace Act (and OMB regulations) and the DOD Rule, at least to the extent that your grant or contract comes within the relatively narrow scope of the DOD Rule.

B. What's in a name? Commentators have been quick to point out that DOD's choice of a different noun in the title of its Rule assumes more than symbolic significance. The Drug-Free Workplace Act addresses the pernicious effects of drug abuse on workplace efficiency. The DOD Rule, by contrast, aims at achieving a "Drug-Free Work Force" by prohibiting the use of drugs "on or off duty" and mandating employee testing under certain circumstances--testing that could lead to the imposition of sanctions even for off-duty, recreational drug use.

DEFINITION OF ALCOHOLISM

Alcoholism is a **primary**, chronic **disease** with genetic, psychosocial, and environmental factors influencing its development and manifestations. The disease is **often progressive and fatal**. It is characterized by continuous or periodic **impaired control** over drinking, **preoccupation** with the drug alcohol, use of alcohol despite **adverse consequences**, and distortions in thinking, most notably **denial**.

- **Primary** refers to the nature of alcoholism as a disease entity in addition to and separate from other pathophysiologic states which may be associated with it. **Primary** suggests that alcoholism, as an addiction, is not a symptom of an underlying disease state.

- **Disease** means an involuntary disability. It represents the sum of the abnormal phenomena displayed by a group of individuals. These phenomena are associated with a specified common set of characteristics by which these individuals differ from the norm, and which places them at a disadvantage.

- **Often progressive and fatal** means that the disease persists over time and that physical, emotional, and social changes are often cumulative and may progress as drinking continues. Alcoholism causes premature death through overdose, organic complications involving the brain, liver, heart, and many other organs, and by contributing to suicide, homicide, motor vehicle crashes, and other traumatic events.

- **Impaired control** means the inability to limit alcohol use or to consistently limit on any drinking occasion the duration of the episode, the quantity consumed, and/or the behavioral consequences of drinking.

- **Preoccupation** in association with alcohol use indicates excessive, focused attention given to the drug alcohol, its effects, and/or its use. The relative value thus assigned to alcohol by the individual often leads to a diversion of energies away from important life concerns.

- **Adverse consequences** are alcohol-related problems or impairments in such areas as: physical health (e.g., alcohol withdrawal symptoms, liver disease, gastritis, anemia, neurological disorders); psychological functioning (e.g., impairments in cognition, changes in mood and behavior); interpersonal functioning (e.g., marital problems and child abuse, impaired social relationships); occupational functioning (e.g., scholastic or job problems); and legal, financial, or spiritual problems.

- **Denial** is used here not only in the psychoanalytic sense of a single psychological defense mechanism disavowing the significance of events, but more broadly to include a range of psychological maneuvers designed to reduce awareness of the fact that alcohol use is the cause of an individual's problems rather than a solution to those problems. **Denial** becomes an integral part of the disease and a major obstacle to recovery.

This definition was prepared by the Joint Committee to Study the Definition and Criteria for the Diagnosis of Alcoholism of the National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence and the American Society of Addiction Medicine. It was approved by the Board of Directors of NCADD on 3 February, 1990, and the Board of Directors of ASAM on 25 February, 1990.

THE DISEASE OF CHEMICAL DEPENDENCY IN ADOLESCENCE

EXPERIMENTAL DRUG USAGE

INCREASED AMOUNT
& FREQUENCY OF USAGE
OTHER KNOWN CHEMICAL USE IN FAMILY
SLEEPING IN CLASS
DECREASE OF ATTENTION SPAN
LOW FRUSTRATION TOLERANCE
INCONSISTENT BEHAVIOR
WALKING OUT OF CLASS

CHANGE IN QUALITY OF ASSIGNMENTS
MISSING CLASS
POOR INTERPERSONAL CONTACT

CHANGE IN GRADES

DECREASED ABILITY TO STOP
DRUG USE
INCREASED NEED FOR
IMMEDIATE GRATIFICATION
INCREASED ABSENTEEISM
DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS INCREASE

CHANGE IN PEERS
CHANGE IN APPEARANCE &
PERSONAL HYGIENE
DISCONTINUATION OF EXTRA-
CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

LEGAL DIFFICULTIES

FAMILY BECOMES CONCERNED

LOSS OF ORDINARY
WILL POWER

INCREASED ASSOCIATION WITH DRUG
SUBCULTURE

INCREASED TRUANCY
ONSET OF DAILY
LENGTHY "HIGHS"

PHYSICAL, MENTAL & EMOTIONAL
DETERIORATION
NO INTEREST IN SCHOOL
DROPS OUT OF SCHOOL

IMPAIRED
THINKING

OBSESSION WITH DRUG USE

INDEFINABLE FEARS
ALL ALIBIS EXHAUSTED

VAGUE DESIRE FOR HOPE

COMPLETE DEFEAT ADMITTED

COMPULSIVE DRUG USE
CONTINUES IN VICIOUS CYCLES

HONEST DESIRE FOR HELP

LEARNS CHEMICAL DEPENDENCY IS A DISEASE

INFORMED PROBLEM CAN BE ARRESTED

NEW HOPE
TREATMENT BEGINS
ASSISTED IN HONEST SELF-APPRAISAL

ONSET OF
PHYSICAL EXAMINATION, M.D.

RIGHT THINKING
BEGINS
GROUP THERAPY

POSSIBILITY SEEN FOR NEW WAY OF LIFE

DIMINISHING FEARS
OF FUTURE
REALISTIC THINKING BEGINS

IMPROVED PHYSICAL
CONDITION
FAMILY BECOMES MORE CONCERNED
AWARENESS OF OTHERS BEGINS

VALUES CLARIFICATION
BEGINS
DESIRE FOR EDUCATION BEGINS

DESIRE TO RESUME HOBBIES
BEGINS
SITUATION FACED HONESTLY
RENEWED SELF INTEREST

INCREASED EMOTIONAL CONTROL

RESUMPTION OF EDUCATION
RETURNS TO HOME AND SCHOOL
CONTINUES ONGOING
SUPPORT & TREATMENT

OPENS UP WITH SOBRIETY
EXCUSES RECOGNIZED
CONTENTMENT & REWARDS
OF SOBRIETY OCCUR
CONFIDENCE OF FAMILY IMPROVES

LIFE IMPROVES
IMPROVED GRADES
& ATTITUDES
TRUST BY TEACHERS
IMPROVES

ENLIGHTENED AND INTERESTING LIFE

AA/NA CONTINUES

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FREQUENTLY SEEN STAGES IN ADOLESCENT CHEMICAL USE . . .

1. Experimental Use
Late grade school or early junior high years

INTAKE	WHAT THE WORLD SEES
1. Occasional beer-drinking, pot-smoking, or use of inhalants (glue-sniffing, sniffing aerosols, etc.). Usually done weekends or during the summer, mostly with friends.	Often unplanned, using beer sneaked from home, model glue, etc. little use of "harder" drugs at this stage.
2. Easy to get high (low tolerance).	
3. Thrill of acting grown-up and defying parents is part of the high.	

2. More Regular Use
Late junior high and early senior high years

INTAKE	WHAT THE WORLD SEES
4. Tolerance increases with increased use. More parties involving kegs, pot, possibly pills or hash. Acceptance of the idea that "everyone does it" and wanting to be in on it. Disdain of "local pot" or 3.2 beer. Staying out later, even all night.	More money involved, false IDs. Alcohol or pot bought and shared with friends. Parents become aware of use. May start a long series of "groundings" for late hours.
5. Use of wine or liquor may increase, but beer remains the most popular drink. Willing to suffer hangovers.	Drug-using friends often not introduced to parents.
6. Consumption increases and pride in being able to "handle it" increases.	Lying to parents about the extent of use and use of money for drugs.
7. Use on weeknights begins, and school skipping may increase.	School activities are dropped, especially sports. Grades will drop. Truancy increases.
8. Blackouts may begin, and talk with friends about "What did I do last night?" occurs.	Non-drug-using friends are dropped. Weekend-long parties may start.
9. Solitary use begins--even smoking at home (risk-taking increases). Concentration on fooling parents or teachers when high.	
10. Preoccupation with use begins. The next high is carefully planned and anticipated. Source of supply is a matter of worry.	

11. Use during the day starts. Smoking before school to "make it through the morning." Use of "dust" may increase, or experiments with acid, speed, or barbs may continue.

3. Daily Preoccupation

12. Use of harder drugs increases (speed, acid, barbs, dust).

13. Number of times high during the week increases. Amount of money spent for drugs increases (concealing savings withdrawals from parents).

14. "Social use" decreases--getting loaded rather than just high. Being high becomes normal.

15. Buying more and using more--all activities seem to include drug use or alcohol.

16. Possible theft to get money to insure a supply. There may be a contact with "bigger" dealers.

17. Solitary use increases. User will isolate self from other using friends.

18. Lying about or hiding the drug supply. Stash may be concealed from friends.

Possible dealing or fronting for others.

Possible court trouble for minor consumption or possession. May be arrested for driving while intoxicated. Probation may result.

May try to cut down or quit to convince self that there is no problem with drugs.

Most straight friends are dropped.

Money owed for drugs may increase. More truancy and fights with parents about drug use.

4. Dependency

19. Getting high during school or at work. Difficult to face the day without drugs. Drugs are used to escape self.

20. Possible use of injectable drugs. Friends are burnouts (and may take pride in the label).

Guilt feelings increase. Questioning own use but unable to control the urge.

Low self-image and self-hate. Casual sexual involvement. Continued denial of problem.

21. Can't tell what normal behavior is anymore--normal means being stoned nearly constantly.

22. Physical condition worsens. Loss of weight, more frequent illnesses. Memory suffers, flashbacks may increase. Thought of suicide may increase.

School dropped. Dealing may increase, along with police involvement. Parents may "give up."

Paranoia increases. Cost of habit increases with most of money going for habit.

Loss of control over use.

From: CompCare Publications, Minneapolis, MN

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM STIMULANTS

Stimulants are the reverse of sedatives. They speed up mental function. UPPERS (amphetamines).

Street Names: Zip, speed, Bennies, Coke, Black Beauties, Dexies, and Pink Cadillacs

SITE OF ACTION: All levels of the brain and spinal cord.

DRUG NAME	SIGNS OF INTOXICATION	SIGNS OF OVERDOSE	SIGNS OF WITHDRAWAL
Cocaine	Alertness	Agitation	No definite physical dependence
Epinephrine	Hyperactivity	Psychosis	
Amphetamines	Anorexia	Fever	
Dexedrine	Tachycardia	Convulsions	May be confusion, depression, and/or suicidal thoughts
Methedrine	Aggression	Elevation of B/P	
Benzedrine	Psychosis	Delirium	
Ritalin			

NARCOTIC ANALGESICS

Narcotic analgesics are used for relief of severe pain.

Street Names: Junk, "H," Dollies, Dreamer, "T's," Horse, Smack, "M," Texas mud

DRUG NAME	SIGNS OF INTOXICATION	SIGNS OF OVERDOSE	SIGNS OF WITHDRAWAL
Morphine	Euphoria	Coma	Irritability
Heroin	Drowsiness	Pinpoint pupils	Muscle spasms
Methadone	Nodding	Depressed respiration	Hypertension
Percodan	Constipation	Hypotension	Dilated pupils
Demerol	Needle or track	Hypothermia	Nausea and vomiting
Codeine		Pulmonary edema	Diarrhea
Talwin		Convulsions	
Dilaudid			

Non-Narcotic Analgesics: ASA, Tylenol, Datril, Tempra

Effects: Can cause gastric ulceration, ringing of ears, hyperventilation, etc.

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM DEPRESSANTS
SEDATIVES, HYPNOTICS, MINOR TRANQUILIZERS

Street Names: Ludes, Downers, Reds, Rover, Mickeys

SITE OF ACTION: Deactivating our systems responsible for wakefulness.

DRUG NAME	SIGNS OF INTOXICATION	SIGNS OF OVERDOSE	SIGNS OF WITHDRAWAL
Barbiturates	Drowsiness	Coma	Anxiety
Phenobarbital	Unsteady on feet	Stupor	Anorexia
Doriden	Memory impairment	Depressed respirations	Insomnia
Quaalude	Traits & feelings ordinarily suppressed	Reflexes hyperactive to diminished	Tremors
Librium	Difficulty with thought and speech	Sluggish pupillary response	Seizures
Valium*			Disorientation
Chloral Hydrate			Fever
Miltown			Agitation
Ethyl Alcohol*			Late DTs

* Affects cortex first--discrimination, memory, and concentration are first dulled and then lost.

HALLUCINOGENS

Street Names: Pot, Hash, THC, LSD, Mesc

DRUG NAME	SIGNS OF INTOXICATION	SIGNS OF OVERDOSE	SIGNS OF WITHDRAWAL
LSD (acid)	Exaggerated senses	Panic	No definite physical dependence
Mescaline (Peyote)	Disordered perceptions	Suicide	May be confusion, depression
Psilocybin (Mushrooms)	Psychosis	Psychosis	Suicide
Cannabis	Panic		
STP-PCP (Angel Dust)	Suicide		

Overdose of Pot: Altered perception especially of time, mood changes, euphoria, anxiety, depression

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MOOD ALTERING DRUGS ARE GROUPED INTO CATEGORIES: 1. Major tranquilizers: Thorazine, Stelazine, etc. 2. Minor tranquilizers are to reduce the feeling of anxiety or for muscle relaxation: Valium, Librium, etc. 3. Sedatives: Barbiturates, Seconal. 4. Stimulants are the reverse of sedatives. They speed up mental function: Dexadrine. 5. Antidepressants: Tofranil. 6. Narcotics: Codeine, Demerol.

Captain Joseph A. Pursch, Director of Long Beach Rehabilitation Center: "The most prescribed sedative is Valium and it might as well be termed solid alcohol because the brain can't tell the difference between alcohol and Valium. If you are sick enough to want or need Valium or Librium, you are sick enough to be in the hospital."

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DRINKING MYTHS

A guided tour through folklore, fantasy, humbug, and hogwash provided by Operation Threshold, United States Jaycees.

Why bother to debunk a bunch of harmless myths about drinking? Because they're not so harmless.

For instance? If a guy thinks it's okay to smash down 8 to 10 beers every night because "it's only beer" ... he could develop a serious drinking problem without even knowing it.

We have nine million alcoholic Americans. It's become a national plague. Yet, in some other societies, where they don't share our misconceptions about drinking, alcoholism is rare.

So the more we know about drinking, the better we can handle it. The better we can decide whether, when, where, why, how much, and with whom to drink.

1. The really serious problem in our society is drug abuse. Right. And our number one drug problem is alcohol abuse. About 300,000 Americans are addicted to heroin, but 9,000,000 are addicted to alcohol. It's not even close.

2. "I drive better after a few drinks." In most states, the legal definition of "driving under the influence" is a blood alcohol level of 0.10%. But scientific tests have proven that even professional drivers' abilities diminish sharply at levels as low as 0.03% to 0.05% . . . just a few drinks. Not only that, but judgment is affected, too. So people think they're driving better than ever while they're really driving worse.

3. All that publicity about drinking and driving is . . . True. At least half of the fatal highway accidents involve drinking.

4. Alcohol is a stimulant. It's about as good a stimulant as ether. Alcohol acts as a depressant on the central nervous system.

5. Very few women become alcoholic. In the 1950s, there were 5 or 6 alcoholic men to every woman. Now the ratio is about 3 to 1. Evidently this is one area where women's liberation is catching on too well.

6. People are friendlier when they're drunk. Maybe. But they're also more hostile, more dangerous, more criminal, more homicidal, and more suicidal. Half of all murders are alcohol-related. And one-third of all suicides.

7. People get drunk . . . or sick . . . from switching drinks. That shouldn't really make much difference. What usually causes an adverse reaction to alcohol is drinking too much.

8. It's rude to refuse a drink. Nonsense. What's rude is trying to push a drink on someone who doesn't want it or shouldn't have it.

9. "Ya gotta hand it to Joe. He can really hold his liquor." Don't envy Joe. Often the guy who can hold so much is developing a "tolerance" for alcohol. And tolerance can be a polite word for need.

10. Your kids will learn what you tell them about drinking. Your kids will learn what you show them about drinking. If you drink heavily; if you get drunk; the chances are your kids will follow the same example.

11. People who drink too much hurt only themselves. And their families. And their friends, and their employers, and strangers on the highway. And you.

12. A good host never lets a guest's glass get empty. There's nothing hospitable about pushing alcohol or any other drug. A good host doesn't want his guests to get drunk or sick. He wants them to have a good time . . . and remember it the next day.

13. It's impolite to tell a friend he's drinking too much. Maybe if we weren't all so "polite" we wouldn't have so many friends with drinking problems.

14. A few drinks can help you unwind and relax. Maybe. But if you use alcohol like a medicine, it's time to see your doctor.

15. "What a man! Still on his feet after a whole fifth." When we stop thinking it's manly to drink too much, we have begun to grow up. It's no more manly to overdrink than it is to overeat.

16. If the parents don't drink, the children won't drink. Sometimes. But the highest incidence of alcoholism occurs among offspring of parents who are either teetotalers . . . or alcoholic. Perhaps the "extremism" of the parents' attitudes is an important factor.

17. You're not an alcoholic unless you drink a pint a day. There's no simple rule of thumb. Experts have concluded that how much one drinks may be far less important than when he drinks, how he drinks, and why he drinks.

18. Alcoholism is just a state of mind. It's more than that. It's a very real illness, and there is scientific evidence that physiological dependence is involved.

19. The "Drunk Tank" is a good cure for alcoholism. Nonsense. Alcoholism is an illness and can be treated successfully. We don't jail people for other illnesses. Why for alcoholism?

20. The first round should be a "double" to break the ice. Breaking the ice is a job for a good host or hostess . . . not for a bottle. You must have more to "give" your guests than alcohol.

21. Mixing your drinks causes hangovers. The major cause of hangovers is drinking too much. Period.

22. Most alcoholics are skid row bums. Only 3-5% are. Most alcoholic people (about 70%) are married, employed, regular people. All kinds of people.

23. Drinking is a sexual stimulant. Contrary to popular belief, the more you drink, the less your sexual capacity. Alcohol may stimulate interest in sex, but it interferes with the ability to perform.

24. The time to teach kids about drinking is when they reach legal age. By that time, they've long since learned what we can teach them. Like it or not, we teach our kids from birth. And they learn more from what they see us do than from what they hear us tell them.

25. Give him black coffee. That'll sober him up. Sure, in about five hours. Cold showers don't work either. Only time will get the alcohol out of the system, as the liver metabolizes the alcohol. Slowly. There's no way to hurry it.

26. Indians can't drink. Some can, some can't. Just like Caucasians.

27. "I'm just a social drinker." Just because you never drink alone doesn't mean you can't have a drinking problem. Plenty of "social drinkers" become alcoholic.

28. Drug? Drug. Alcohol is a drug, all right. If you don't believe it, ask your doctor.

29. "It's only beer." Sure. Just like it's only bourbon, or vodka, or gin. One beer or one glass of wine is about equal to one average highball. The effect might be a little slower, but you'll get just as drunk on beer or wine as on "hard" liquor.

30. Today's kids don't drink. Sorry, but the generation gap is greatly exaggerated. The kids' favorite drug is the same as their parents' favorite: alcohol. And drinking problems are rising among the young.

31. Most alcoholic people are middle-aged or older. A University of California research team has found that the highest proportion of drinking problems is among men in their early twenties. The second highest incidence occurs among men in their 40s and 50s.

32. Thank God my kid isn't on drugs! If he's hooked on drinking, he's on drugs. With nine million Americans dependent on alcohol, it's time we stopped pretending it isn't a drug.

33. Most skid row bums are alcoholics. No. See? You just can't count on stereotypes. A recent study found that less than half of the derelicts on skid row had drinking problems.

34. Jews don't drink. Some do, some don't.

35. The best cure for a hangover is . . . Everybody has his favorite. But they all have one thing in common: they don't work. What works? Preventive medicine. If you don't drink too much, you won't get a hangover.

36. "I don't know any alcoholics." Maybe you just don't know you know any alcoholics. Some of your best friends may have drinking problems. They don't seem "different." And they usually try to hide their illness, even from themselves. About 1 of every 10 executives has a drinking problem.

37. Getting drunk is funny. Maybe in old Charlie Chaplin movies . . . but not in real life. Drunkenness is no funnier than any other illness or incapacity.

38. Never trust a man who never takes a drink. You know that's silly. Yet many of us are a little nervous around people who don't drink.

COMMON SYMPTOMATIC CHARACTERISTICS OF CHEMICAL USE AND CHEMICAL DEPENDENCY IN ADOLESCENTS

1. Physical Status

    A. Changes in facial color and degrees of alertness from day to day
    B. Changes in levels of activity from day to day (i.e., alert and active one day, tired and subdued the next)
    C. Similar changes may also occur from hour to hour

2. Truancy

    A. Chronic tardiness
    B. Excessive absences (with or without pattern)
    C. Leaving class early (with or without excuse)

3. Attitude

    A. Low motivation and loss of interest
    B. Often hostile when criticized
    C. Argumentative
    D. Extreme negativism
    E. Stereotyped thinking
    F. Denial of any problem
    G. Low self-esteem
    H. Remorse--promises to change

4. Academic Performance

    A. Lower grades--lower achievement (over a period of time)

5. Contact with Others

    A. Avoidance of contact with concerned persons
    B. Spends less time at home (time at home is often alone--in room, basement, etc.)
    C. Makes appointments but does not show up
    D. Avoids talking about or minimizes chemical use--references with adults but brags about use with peers)

6. Chemical Use

    A. Frequent use and intoxication
    B. Hiding chemicals
    C. Finding different way to use
    D. Using chemicals in the morning and/or at school or work

7. Other Behaviors

    A. Involvement in arguments, fights, thefts, or other illegal behavior
    B. Noticeable change of friends over a period of time (new friends tend to be into more known or suspected chemical use than old ones)
    C. Obvious signs of being under the influence of a chemical in or out of school (smell of alcohol or other chemicals, movement [walking]) is affected, altered speech [inappropriate verbal responses]
    D. Absenteeism or low performance on job

ADDITIONAL BEHAVIORS

Avoidance
Parental or peer concerns
Physical complaints
Dramatic attention-getting
Manipulations
Apathy
Incoherence
Others reported concern regarding chemical use
Unrealistic goals
Crying
Job problems
Hanging around with drug culture
Exchanges of money
Court appearances
Depression
Mood swings
Family problems
Unusual amount of physical injuries
Sudden popularity
Older age social group
Constantly borrowing money
Extreme dissatisfaction with school
Blaming
Denying problem areas
Frequent visits to nurse, counselor, principal
Time disorientation
Runaway
Vomiting in class
Inconsistent behavior
Inability to reason

Compiled by David Rosenker

LIFELINE PRESENTS

Concerned Group

For ACOA's - Adult Children of Alcoholics and Codependency

Are you worried about someone's drinking? Did you grow up in a home with drinking or drug use that concerned you? Do you have questions about how alcohol or drugs has affected friends or family?

This group will help you: know that you are not alone, feel better about yourself, find new hope for relationships, locate helpful information, keep going on those difficult days.

MEETS IN THE LIFELINE ROOM, M-7D:

Mondays	3rd period	9:55 - 10:45 a.m.
Tuesdays	5th period	11:45 - 12:35 p.m.
Thursdays	6th period	1:05 - 1:50 p.m.

Recovery Group

FOR STUDENTS CONCERNED ABOUT THEIR OWN ALCOHOL OR DRUG USE OR THOSE CURRENTLY RECOVERING FROM CHEMICAL DEPENDENCY

Topics include: self-esteem, peer pressure, life after alcohol and/or drugs, changing behaviors, feelings, other topics to be decided by group interest.

MEETS IN THE LIFELINE ROOM, M-7D:

Thursdays	Activity period	8:55 - 9:40 a.m.

Emotions Anonymous

EA is a 12-step program like Alcoholics Anonymous, but designed for persons with emotional problems. You are welcome to attend to discover as others have done how to live with unsolved problems. For more information, call Anita at 835-4562 or stop by the Lifeline Room.

MEETS IN THE LIFELINE ROOM, M-7D:

Fridays	6th period	12:40 - 1:30 p.m.

Parents' Support Groups

TO HELP AND ENCOURAGE PARENTS WHO ARE STRUGGLING WITH FAMILY ISSUES ALONG WITH THE STRESS OF SCHOOL

Topics include: needs of parents and children, effective parenting skills, time priorities, the demands of single parenting.

MEETS IN THE LIFELINE ROOM, M-7D:

Wednesdays	3rd period	9:55 - 10:45 a.m.

MEETS IN THE PHILLIPS BUILDING, ROOM 200a:

Wednesdays	6th period	12:40 - 1:30 p.m.

Chippewa Valley Technical College

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF ADDICTION MEDICINE
NATIONAL COUNCIL ON ALCOHOLISM AND DRUG DEPENDENCE

JOINT COMMITTEE TO STUDY THE DEFINITION AND CRITERIA FOR THE DIAGNOSIS OF ALCOHOLISM

Members

Robert M. Morse, M.D., Chairman
Dr. Daniel K. Flavin, NCADD Medical/Scientific Director, staff to Committee

Daniel J. Anderson, Ph.D.
Margaret Bean-Bayog, M.D.
Henri Begleiter, M.D., Ph.D.
Sheila B. Blume, M.D., CAC
Jean Forest, M.D.
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Emanuel M. Steindler
Boris Tabakoff, Ph.D.
George Vaillant, M.D.

Ex Officio

James Callahan, D.P.A.
Jasper Chen-See, M.D.
Robert D. Sparks, M.D.

Emeritus Consultant

Frank A. Seixas, M.D.

COURSE COMPETENCIES

Identify the characteristics of the non-English-speaking student and describe the various support services available to him/her.

- Identify the characteristics and problems of the non-English-speaking student in the learning environment.
- Describe the support services available to the non-English-speaking student.
- Describe needed modifications in the learning environment to meet the needs of the non-English-speaking student.
- Identify problems faced by non-English-speaking individuals in the labor market.
- Compare two culturally different students and how their problems and needs may be the same and how they may be different.

RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Gretchen Egan
ESL Instructor

Jane Hansen
ESL Instructor

Houa Lee
Multicultural Specialist

Rosemarie Schulz
ESL Liaison Instructor

Paul Jokela
Counselor,
NTC-East Campus

Joe McKenna
Counselor,
NTC-East Campus

OBJECTIVES

- To define normalcy as it relates to diverse student populations
- To identify barriers that affect the teaching/learning environment
- To describe the characteristics of the special needs group
- To identify the potential problems special needs groups face in the workplace
- To develop a sensitivity and awareness of the needs of the diverse student population served by applying curriculum modifications and adaptations to an instructional area

ACTIVITIES

1. Select an English as a Second Language class to visit with the help of the resource personnel listed above. Find out the following information from the resource personnel:

    a. Organization of the program

    b. Modes/methods of instructional delivery

    c. Student population served

    d. Specific use of language

    e. The social, cultural, and political context of the program's operation

2. Arrange with the instructor of the class to interview one or two students.

3. Develop a list of questions for your interview based on the competencies and objectives of the course.

4. Submit the questions to the course facilitator prior to your interview with the students.

5. Share your findings of the class visit and interview with the course facilitator at the second progress/sharing meeting.

6. Read the following pages from the course manual:

    F-1 to F-36

7. View the video "Becoming Americans," Marathon County Public Library. After reflecting on the content, respond in writing to your observations in your journal.

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ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students

PROGRAM ONE

SERVING STUDENTS OF A GLOBAL SOCIETY

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Objectives:

1. To become aware of the changes in demographics occurring in the United States.

2. To become aware of how these changes affect schools.

3. To become familiar with the federal legal requirements concerning limited English proficient (LEP) students.

4. To become familiar with procedures necessary to insure the rights of LEP students.

Section I: Demographics

A. Immigration to the United States continues to increase each year

Immigration to U.S. in thousands	1984	1988
Americas: North/Central/South, Mexico, Canada, Caribbean	204.8	291.8
Asia: Philippines, China, Korea, India	256.3	264.8
Europe: United Kingdom, Poland, Germany, Soviet Union	64.1	64.8
Africa:	15.5	18.9
Australia:	1.3	2.0
Other Countries:	1.9	1.1
TOTALS	543.9	643.4

Source: World Almanac, 1989

B. Louisiana Statistics - 1987-88

The state possesses 66 LEAs, one BIA system, and 402 private schools.

1.	Total student enrollment (public and private)	909,327
2.	Total students with home language other than English	26,325

American Indian	3,267
Asian	10,147
Hispanic	8,802
French	3,101
Other Languages	1,008

3.	Number of LEP students served in public and private schools	10,127

a. Thai	10	h. Korean	150
b. Farsi (Persian)	16	i. Laotian	301
c. Japanese	22	j. Native American	608
d. German	45	k. Spanish	2,337
e. Arabic	68	l. Vietnamese	2,661
f. Cambodian	70	m. French	2,745
g. Chinese	86	n. Other languages	1,008

		Elementary (K-8)	Secondary (9-12)	Totals
4.	Number of LEP students retained	567	0	567
5.	Number of LEP students dropouts	0	48	48
6.	Number of LEP students referred to special education	68	5	73
7.	Number of LEP students placed in special education	63	22	85

8. Number of suspensions & expulsions in Louisiana

White	52,053
Black	75,362
Hispanic	983
Native American	525
Asian	357
TOTAL	129,280

9. There are 4,326 LEP students in Louisiana who need or could benefit from special language program (Bilingual, Transitional, and Special Alternative).

Source: FY88 Report on Limited English Proficient Student Populations, Louisiana Department of Education

C. Projections for 2000

Spanish language group	18.2 million
Asian language group	2.3 million
Other language groups	19.0 million

Age group	Estimated number of Non-English-Language-Background (NELB)
0 - 4	2.6 million
5 - 14	5.1 million
15 - 24	4.3 million
25 - 34	4.7 million
35 - 54	13.1 million
55 plus	11.0 million

LEP Results by Language

- Between 1976 and 2000, LEP persons will increase by 880,000; of this number, 840,000 (95.5%) are Spanish LEPs.
- Spanish LEPs will increase from 1.8 million in 1976 to 2.6 million (77%) of all LEPs in 2000.
- Asian LEPs remain at 130,000 in 1976 and 2000.
- Non-Spanish/non-Asian LEPs remain at 600,000 in 1976 and 2000.

LEP Results by Age

- There is a pronounced increase in the number of younger Asian LEPs between 1976 and 2000 (70,000 to 81,000) and a slight drop in older Asian LEPs (56,000 to 54,000).
- The 5-9 age group moves from 1.3 million in 1976 to 1.8 million in 2000. The age 10-14 group increases from 1.3 million in 1976 to 1.6 million in 2000.

LEP Results by Major States

- California and Texas show overall gains in the number of LEPs between 1976 and 2000 (California, 600,000 to 900,000) while New York stays the same at 500,000 in 1976 and 2000.

Source: Demographic Projections of Non-English-Language-Background and Limited-English-Proficient Persons in the United States to the Year 2000 By State, Age, and Language Group. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Rosslyn, VA, 1984.

Summary of Federal Mandates for the Provision of Equal Educational Opportunity to National Origin Minority Students

1. No discrimination or exclusion from benefits on the ground of race, color, or national origin.

   Title VI, Civil Rights Act of 1964 (1964) 20 U.S.C. sec. 2000d.

2. No denial of access to participation in school programs because of language. No segregation by tracking, ability grouping, and assignment to special education. No exclusion of parents from school information.

   Pottinger, J. S. (Director, OCR/DHEW) (1970) Memorandum to School Districts With More Than Five Percent National Origin Minority Group Children regarding Identification of Discrimination and Denial of Services on the Basis of National Origin. 35 Federal Register 11595.

3. No discrimination or exclusion from benefits solely on the basis of a handicapping condition.

   Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (1973) sec. 504, 29 U.S.C. sec. 794.

4. Take affirmative steps to provide LEP students special instruction designed to overcome their English language deficiency. There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education.

   Lau v. Nichols (1974) 414 U.S. 563.

5. No unlawful denial of equal educational opportunity to NOM individuals. Districts must take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation.

   Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (1974) 20 U.S.C. sec. 1703(f).

6. Use the home language as needed for home school communication and parent involvement.

   An IEP may provide that instruction be carried out bilingually. Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975) 20 U.S.C. sec. 1401.

7. LEP exceptional students have a right to receive bilingual services.

   Jose P. v. Ambach (1979) EHLR 3 551: 245(E.D.N.Y.)
   Y.S., et al., v. School District of Philadelphia (1986) C.A. 85-6924 (E.D. PA)

8. An appropriate program is based on a sound theory, allocates sufficient resources to the program to implement the theory, and can demonstrate effectiveness in teaching English and other subject areas, leading to parity of participation in the standard instructional program.

   Castaneda v. Pickard (1981) 648 F.2nd 989 (5th Cir.)

9. States must establish standards and guidelines for service to NOM students and monitor school districts for compliance with those standards.

   Idaho Migrant Council v. Board of Education (1981) 647 F.2nd 69 (9th Cir.)
   Gomez v. Illinois State Board of Education (1987) 811 F.2nd 1030 (7th Cir.)

10. Foreign-born NOM students have constitutional protection.

    Plyer v. Doe (1982) 457 U.S. 202.

11. All staff members serving LEP students must be trained and linguistically qualified. Both oral and written skills of LEP students must be assessed for program entry and exit purposes.

    Districts must monitor the progress of students after exit. An appropriate program enables LEP students to ultimately compete academically with English-speaking peers.

    Keyes v. School District No. 1 (1983) 576 F. Supp. 1503 (D. Colorado)

Summary of Major Responsibilities of School Districts to National Origin Minority Students

1. Identify NOM students.
2. Assess NOM students to identify LEP students.
3. Establish criteria for entry into, exit from, and reclassification into the alternative program for LEP students.
4. Diagnose instructional needs and provide an alternative program which meets LEP students' special needs for English language instruction, for understandable instruction in other content areas, and for positive self-concept and identification with their cultural heritages.
5. Provide appropriate and comparable instructional materials and staff training opportunities.
6. Provide qualified teachers.
7. Provide equal access to other district programs and services.
8. Provide for parental involvement.
9. Monitor the progress of students after program exit and reclassify students as needed.
10. Evaluate the alternative program and revise as needed.
11. Maintain student records.

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ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students

PROGRAM TWO
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Teachers of limited English proficient (LEP) students need to consider theory and research in second language acquisition in order to best facilitate English language development. Convention and intuition are often very successful, but they should be supplemented. Second language researchers do not have all the answers, but their findings have helped discredit some of our prior erroneous beliefs about language learning and teaching.

HOW IS A SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNED?

We now know that learning a new language is not simply a matter of acquiring a new set of habits and that many of the errors students make are the same, regardless of their native language. Although individual differences exist in language learning style, oftentimes due to personality factors, students pass through fundamentally the same developmental stages in acquiring language. The learner is a mentally active participant in the language learning process. Learners learn what they are psycholinguistically ready to learn, and that is not always what teachers try to teach them. Some children seem to acquire language word by word, analyzing it into its components, while other children appear to approach language in a more wholistic manner, grasping whole phrases used in meaningful communication.

Krashen is one of the most articulate advocates of theory-based language teaching and his ideas have had a tremendous impact on language teaching methods for children and adults. He hypothesizes that second language learners acquire language by receiving "comprehensible input" which is slightly beyond the learner's current language level. The essential meaning of the communication must be understood, even when the language contains structures that are unfamiliar. This is accomplished through extra-linguistic cues, such as pictures, facial expressions, gestures, real life concrete experiences, clarification requests, and by negotiating meaning through interactions.

Speaking "emerges." Learners are not directly taught how to speak, rather speaking ability comes on its own, when the learner is ready. Speech accuracy develops as the learner obtains more "comprehensible input." According to Krashen's theory, the best input is not grammatically sequenced, for that dilutes the potential for meaningful communication. Grammar structures are constantly provided and automatically reviewed in natural language settings. And natural meaningful communication, in a low anxiety environment, is what enhances language development.

Many current English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks and materials are based on these principles. While natural language situations may be optimum for enhancing young children's English language development, it is important for language teachers to capitalize on older children's cognitive capabilities of profiting from instruction that may also involve rule-isolation and attention to grammatical usage.

ARE YOUNG CHILDREN BETTER THAN OLDER STUDENTS AT LANGUAGE LEARNING?

It is widely believed that young children are more efficient at second language acquisition than older students. However, the age question cannot be separated from another key variable in second language acquisition: cognitive development and first language proficiency. Children appear to acquire second languages with greater facility than do adults because the structures and vocabulary they need for adequate communication are far simpler. Although generally an average English proficient child begins Kindergarten already having acquired an enormous amount of vocabulary, grammar, and ability to use language, the process is not at all complete. Between ages 6 and 12, children continue to develop many more complex language skills, including the special uses of language for each subject area. Because of their greater cognitive maturity, and ability to abstract, classify, and generalize in their first language, older children and adults have been found to progress more rapidly through the early stages of language acquisition. However, after 2 or 3 years, younger children achieve higher oral proficiency levels than individuals who begin acquiring language as adolescents or adults. Also, children who learn a second language before the onset of puberty will not speak with an accent.

Researchers have found that the optimum age for beginning second language acquisition is between the ages of 8 and 12, provided that such children have had solid schooling in their first language. Adolescents with solid schooling in their first language are equally efficient second language learners, except for pronunciation.

HOW DOES FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AFFECT SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION?

Research in second language acquisition has shown us that the development of one's first language has a significant influence on the development of one's second language.

Oftentimes the development of a LEP student's first language ceases at school age and is replaced by English, the second language. The lack of continued first language cognitive development may lead to lowered proficiency levels in the second language and impair a child's academic growth. Researchers have found that, among LEP children, it does not matter when one begins exposure to a second language, as long as cognitive development in the first language continues up through age 12, when first language acquisition is largely completed. Thus, the development of one language strongly aids development of the second one. An interdependence between languages exists which is important for cognitive growth. Research has shown that fully bilingual children enjoy cognitive advantages over monolingual children.

WHAT TYPE OF LANGUAGE IS NEEDED FOR ACADEMIC SUCCESS?

Teachers frequently assume that a LEP child who can carry on a native-like conversation has attained a native-like proficiency. We now know from Cummins' research that this is not true. The language needed for school is very complex and subject-dependent. It is not the same language that is typically used during social interaction, and it becomes increasingly complex and less connected to contextual clues as students move into higher grades. This latter type of language has become popularly known as cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP) and it has been distinguished from the more functional social language known as basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS). Proficiency in BICS does not correlate highly with proficiency in the type of language needed for cognitively demanding, context-reduced language tasks such as those measured on standardized tests. Teachers often make the mistake of assuming that a child who speaks native-like English after 2 or 3 years is capable of achieving in English on par with native English-speaking peers. But it generally takes years of exposure and schooling for LEP students to attain English proficiency in CALP equivalent to average age appropriate school performance.

HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE FOR A LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENT TO LEARN ENGLISH?

This often-asked question is usually based on the assumption that the development of English proficiency results in LEP students' eventual attainment of the academic skills needed to succeed in the classroom. Yet there are many factors which influence a student's academic achievement in a second language. Mindful of this fact, recently researchers have provided us with insight into the relationship between length of time in school and academic success in English.

Collier synthesized the research addressing the question of how long it takes for a LEP student to become proficient in a second language for schooling purposes and to reach native-speaker norms in academic achievement. The following generalizations are excerpted from her work:

1. When students are schooled in two languages, with solid cognitive academic instruction provided in both the first and second languages, both language minority and language majority students generally from 4 to 7 years to reach national norms on standardized tests in reading, social studies, and science (measures of thinking skills), whereas their performance may reach national norms in as little as 2 years in first language and English tests in mathematics and language arts (the latter testing spelling, punctuation, and simple grammar points). Social class background does not appear to make a significant difference in academic achievement in a dual-language program.

2. Immigrants arriving at ages 8 to 12, with at least 2 years of first language schooling in their home country, take 5 to 7 years to reach the level of average performance by native speakers on English standardized tests in reading, social studies, and science when they are schooled exclusively in English after arrival. Their performance may reach national norms in as little as 2 years in mathematics and language arts.

3. Young arrivals with no schooling in their first language in either their home country or the host country may take even longer to reach the level of average performance by native speakers on English standardized tests: possibly as long as 7 to 10 years in reading, social studies, and science, or indeed, never. Very little longitudinal research has been conducted in this area, however.

4. Adolescent arrivals who have had no English exposure and who are not able to continue academic work in their first language while they are acquiring English do not have enough time left in high school to make up the lost years of academic instruction. Without special assistance, these students may never reach the 50th normal curve equivalent (NCE) or may drop out before completing high school. This is true both for adolescents with a good academic background and for those whose schooling has been limited or interrupted.

5. Consistent, uninterrupted cognitive academic development in all subjects throughout students' schooling is more important than the number of hours of English instruction for successful academic achievement in English.

A FEW SUGGESTIONS WHICH FACILITATE SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

1. Stimulate active listening and provide a means of eliciting some response (nonverbal for beginners) which indicates that students have understood the communication.

2. Don't stress speaking activities for beginning LEP students until they feel comfortable expressing their thoughts orally.

3. Expect errors in students' speech and consider them as indicators of progress in the language acquisition process. Model correct grammar patterns but don't overtly correct a student's errors. Respond to the intended meanings students are attempting to communicate.

4. Encourage students to ask for clarification when they don't understand. Reduce students' anxiety while they negotiate meaning through oral communication.

5. Use vocabulary and concepts which are comprehensible to your students. Use synonyms, gestures, facial expressions, intonation, or any other extralinguistic cues to clarify your messages.

6. Encourage academic interaction as well as social interaction with English proficient peers. Organize classroom activities or games which include opportunities for students to work in pairs or in small groups.

7. Read aloud to young children using books with large colorful illustrations and repetitive story structures. Folktales, songs, and rhymes are good choices. Reinforce concepts and vocabulary through illustrations and discussion. Encourage students to chant along with oral reading as they become more familiar with the language.

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ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students

PROGRAM THREE
PROGRAM MODELS AND GUIDELINES FOR SERVING STUDENTS

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Basic Elements of Bilingual Education Programs:

- The goal of English language proficiency and content mastery
- Use of the native language to teach content until the child is ready to progress effectively using only English
- A strong English as a second language component
- Use of two languages within the classroom for instruction
- Books and materials in English and the native language

BILINGUAL/ESL PROGRAM MODELS

Transitional Philosophy: Transitional bilingual education programs are designed to develop literacy skills and subject matter knowledge and skills through the use of both languages until students have acquired sufficient English language skills to sustain grade level academic achievement in the English classroom.

- The use of two languages as media of instruction with a gradual shift from more L1 to more L2 as English proficiency increases
- Native language curriculum parallels the regular curriculum
- Bilingual teachers, books, and materials are used
- English is studied as separate subject but reading is generally taught in the native language first
- Native language arts and native culture are a part of the curriculum
- Participation is generally three years, at which time students are transitioned from the program if they meet exit criteria

Maintenance Philosophy: Maintenance bilingual education programs say that the acquisition and maintenance of English and native language skills are given equal importance; thus, students' native language skills are developed throughout their careers.

- Concept acquisition and development in the first language with reinforcement in the second language
- Reading, or acquisition of literacy, in the dominant language first and later added in the second language

- Sequential second language instruction

- Continued development of native language skills even after becoming proficient in English

- Integration of native culture in the curriculum

Enrichment Philosophy: Enrichment bilingual education programs say the bilingualism is a valuable goal for both native English speaking students as well as non-English speakers. Thus, the goal of this approach is for both groups to become bilingual.

- Two languages are used as medium of instruction

- Teachers are bicultural and bilingual

- Language majority and language minority students are in the program together

- Equal value is given to both languages and both cultures

English as a Second Language Philosophy: The goal of this approach is rapid acquisition of English communication skills. Its basic tenet is that students acquire second language skills through a structured program of second language arts: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

- At least one class period of ESL per day is taught

- English is the target of instruction

- A structured, systematic curriculum is used

- United States culture is taught

Immersion Philosophy. The goal of the immersion programs is English acquisition through content instruction. To this end, the curriculum is structured so that concepts are introduced and developed in English, but at a level commensurate with the students' English proficiency, academic ability, and grade level.

- The focus is on content instruction rather than language instruction

- English is taught through the content; thus ESL methods are used in teaching content areas

- The curriculum is the same as for nonimmersion students but it is taught at a different level of comprehension

- Students are a relatively homogenous group with no prior knowledge of the target language

ORGANIZING AND IMPLEMENTING PROGRAMS

Organizing and implementing programs depends on a number of factors, including: the size of the LEP population, the educational needs of the students, their age/grade distribution, and their language background. Other factors that must be considered are state laws regarding LEP students, the school district curriculum, and the availability of professional staff.

Self-Contained Bilingual Instructional Setting: Team Teaching Design

- Students remain the classrooms for a full day
- Students receive instruction in two languages by two teachers in the same classroom
- One teacher is bilingual and one teacher has ESL certification
- Classrooms may include some native English speaking students
- Teachers are willing and able to work together

Self-Contained Bilingual Instructional Setting: Levelized Design

- Students are placed in self-contained classrooms according to their language proficiency level
- The language of instruction depends on the proficiency level of the class
- The levels represent the amount of instructional time spent in the native language and English

  Level I - Instruction is mainly in the native language

  Level II - Instruction is in both the native language and English

  Level III - Instruction is mainly in English

Alternative Bilingual Basic Skills Program Design:

- LEP students are enrolled in the basic skills general classroom
- Daily reading and math instruction is planned by bilingual teachers in a pull-out setting
- ESL instruction is part of the bilingual program curriculum

Departmentalized Bilingual Instructional Settings:

- Students receive instruction in the various subject areas from bilingual teachers who are certified in subject area and hold bilingual endorsements
- ESL instruction must also be part of the bilingual curriculum

Bilingual Tutorial Program:

- Bilingual teacher is assigned to work daily with LEP students as a tutor during an additional period
- Students receive a class period of a required subject given by bilingual teacher
- One period of ESL instruction is provided daily
- Students attend regular subject classes in English, except for the above

In-Class ESL Instructional Settings:

- Small groups of students receive ESL instruction by the ESL teacher in the regular classroom
- This may be part of a regular bilingual program or alternative program

Pull-Out English as a Second Language Instructional Setting:

- ESL instruction is provided to small groups of LEP students, drawn from regular classrooms
- Instruction takes place in an area separate from the regular classroom
- Students are grouped according to language proficiency and grade level

Class Period English as a Second Language Instructional Settings:

- Students receive ESL for high school credit as a scheduled class period at the secondary level
- Students are grouped according to grade and/or language proficiency

High-Intensity English as a Second Language Program:

- Requires a minimum of two class periods of ESL per day
- ESL program includes standard ESL instruction and reading in the content areas taught through an ESL approach

PROBLEM SOLVING: ELEMENTARY

You are an administrator in a rural district of about 2,000 (K-5) students. Over the past five years, there has been an increase in the number of Hispanic students and currently there are 22 enrolled in the district.

The following table shows the number of Hispanic students enrolled in the district's elementary schools.

Schools	Hispanic	Hispanic LEP
Washington	8	6
Stanwyck	4	4
Revere	10	10

The grade breakdown of the above LEP students is as follows:

Schools	Grade K	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
Washington	0	3	0	1	2	0
Stanwyck	1	2	0	1	0	0
Revere	2	1	3	2	0	2

Determine what issues you must consider to plan a program. Be sure to include instructional, legal, curricular, parental, and staffing considerations.

Analyzing a District's LEP Student Profile

Discussion Questions

- What program design(s) best suits the situation? Why?
- What courses, if any, will be offered in L1? In English?
- How many periods will there be of ESL per day?
- How will the diversity of language groups be handled?
- What resources and materials will be needed?
- How many staff members will be needed and of what professional backgrounds?
- How will parents be involved?
- What special programs and support services may be needed?

Adapted from: "An Introduction to Bilingual Education: A Manual for Trainers." New Jersey State Department of Education, Division of Compensatory/Bilingual Education

HINTS FOR THE MAINSTREAM CLASSROOM

Ideas for Working with the LEP Students

- Seat the LEP student in the middle of the classroom so that he/she can see what other students are doing.
- Assign a peer tutor to explain what's going on.
- If there is a peer that speaks the native language, let them translate things such as word problems in math and new concepts.
- Try to use a consistent vocabulary and use visuals when speaking.
- Let the LEP student sit in and follow along during reading group time. Don't put the child in the lowest reading group.
- Find out where the LEP student is in math computation and place in a group accordingly.
- Don't give a grade for something that was not taught. If the child did not understand any of the instruction in social studies for example, what did you teach him or her?
- Use cooperative groupings in your classroom and let the LEP student have a task in the group.
- Prepare a list of vocabulary words you will be using in class and give them to a tutor to teach the LEP student(s) BEFORE you begin the new unit.
- Use the resources of the learning center/library in your school: computers, picture books, language master, tape recorder, etc.
- Borrow materials from the special education teacher, since they often have materials at easier to read levels.
- Make the LEP student a part of the class as much as possible.
- Have the LEP student teach you and their classmates some words in their language.
- Teach the class a lesson about the LEP student's country. Find out what you can from their family.
- Have some peers take the LEP student on a tour of the school.
- Make sure the LEP students' physical needs are met.
- Does the child know where the washroom is? Does she/he need to bring a lunch? Do the parents know what school supplies are needed?
- Teach (tutor) survival language first (e.g., asking directions).
- Keep LEP students "on task" by checking to see that they know what the lesson objective is and how to go about doing it.

- Conduct frequent "verbal reviews" in small groups or the whole class to reflect on what happened and was learned in lessons.

- Help LEP students to verbalize an answer or statement they know but are having problems communicating in English.

- Verbalize each step of any problem, so that LEP students can deal with each element individually.

- Employ "hands-on" experiential activities in science lessons and other areas, relying less on academic language.

- Respond with appropriate language to LEP students' answers. Don't overpraise or criticize, just keep the focus on task. Use the same language and level as for non-LEP students.

- Use repetition, understanding responses, or other clarification techniques to check for teacher comprehension of LEP statements.

- Paraphrase and model correct grammar for LEP students' responses. Unless it's the lesson objective, do not point out the mistakes.

- Maximize cooperation in the classroom in learning school behavior and culture by demonstrating appropriate nonverbal behavior and communication, but not by criticizing LEP students in class.

- Instruct the class in question-asking strategies, and role-play asking in various situations. Have cooperative groups do asking and answering of questions, then use the techniques in class.

- Let the LEP student use native language and pictures in their journal and with other selected writing work.

- Have small groups brainstorm what they know about some topic, and share that with the class, categorizing all the words and ideas.

- Do projects on the community, and have peers teach LEP students about the area. Give the LEP student the opportunity to describe their previous home and any differences they can see.

- Have the class talk about families, and using values clarification, find out how LEP students' families differ and are similar.

- Spend time storytelling (everyone) and show how much culture is involved. Get LEP students to tell stories about their culture.

- Read multicultural books, then let LEP students respond first.

Clara Basch and James Fenelon
Title VII Midwest Multifunctional Resource Center Service Area 5

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students

PROGRAM SEVEN
VALIDATING THE STUDENT'S CULTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

Frank Gonzales
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Objectives:

1. To recognize cultural differences among students.
2. To identify surface culture and deep culture elements.
3. To generate ideas for validating the culture of their students.

The word "validate" means to confirm, to support or corroborate on an authoritative basis, or to make something legally valid. Culturally different children may experience invalidation more frequently than they experience positive reinforcement of their cultures. In addition to having to function in a different language at school, many children are confronted with an immediate name change by a well-meaning but culturally insensitive teacher. Children with the names Rosa, Gustavo, Khamchong, and Pham Thi Dai often become "Rose," "Gus," "Charlie," and "Patty."

Every culture has a distinctive process for naming its members. This process should not be acculturated for the convenience of the teacher or school records without the consent of the individual.

1. **Names**

Hispanics usually have three names.

Maria	Teresa	Villalobos	Juan	Carlos	Gomez
(saint)	(given)	(last)	(saint)	(given)	(last)

Some Hispanics may have compounded names.

Maria del Refugio	Carmen	Gonzales	Jimenez
(saint)	(given)	(father's last)	(mother's last)

Laotian names follow the same pattern.

Kramchong	Luangpraseut
(first)	(last)

Vietnamese names are reversed in order.

Pham	Thi	Dai	Nguyen	Van	Hung
(last)	(middle)	(first)	(last)	(middle)	(first)

Native Americans may have an Indian name and an American name.

Anoskamokwa (tribal name)	Juanita Prado (legal name)

In all cultures, a person's name is the very essence of his/her self-identity. The school should validate the existence of every child by using his/her appropriate culture name.

2. **Surface Culture**

Elements of surface culture include the tangible things related to a group of people. When we speak of a group of people as a whole, the possibility exists of stereotyping everyone within the group. This often leads to overgeneralizations about a particular ethnic group and ultimately provides erroneous information rather than clarifying the situation. Every cultural group has undergone, and is undergoing, processes of acculturation and assimilation.

However, every cultural group maintains certain customs that are unique to that group. These customs and practices become associated with the group until it is difficult to think of one without the other.

Surface culture includes:

1.	Food	(food and culinary contributions)
2.	Holidays	(patriotic holidays, religious observances, and personal rites and celebrations)
3.	Arts	(traditional and contemporary music, visual and performing arts, and drama)
4.	Folklore	(folk tales, legends, and oral history)
5.	History	(historical and humanitarian contributions, and social and political movements)
6.	Personalities	(historical, contemporary, and local figures)

3. **Deep Culture**

Elements of deep culture deal with the feelings and attitudes that we learn by being members of particular groups. Each culture has certain behaviors that are followed in particular situations, of which the following are examples:

ELEMENTS OF DEEP CULTURE

1. CEREMONY: (what a person is to say and do on particular occasions)
2. COURTSHIP & MARRIAGE: (attitudes toward dating, marriage, and raising a family)

3. ESTHETICS: (the beautiful things of culture: literature, music, dance, art, architecture, and how they are enjoyed)

4. ETHICS: (how a person learns and practices honesty, fair play, principles, moral thought, etc.)

5. FAMILY TIES: (how a person feels toward his or her family, friends, classmates, roommates, and others)

6. HEALTH & MEDICINE: (how a person reacts to sickness, death, soundness of mind and body, medicine, etc.)

7. FOLK MYTHS: (attitudes toward heroes, traditional stories, legendary characters, superstitions, etc.)

8. GESTURE & KINESICS: (forms of nonverbal communication or reinforced speech, such as the use of the eyes, the hands, and the body)

9. GROOMING & PRESENCE: (the cultural differences in personal behavior and appearance, such as laughter, smile, voice quality, gait, poise, hairstyle, cosmetics, dress, etc.)

10. OWNERSHIP: (attitudes toward ownership of property, individual rights, loyalties, beliefs, etc.)

11. PRECEDENCE: (what are accepted manners toward older persons, peers, and younger persons)

12. REWARDS & PRIVILEGES: (attitudes toward motivation, merit, achievement, service, social position, etc.)

13. RIGHTS & DUTIES: (attitudes toward personal obligations, voting, taxes, military service, legal rights, personal demands, etc.)

14. RELIGION: (attitudes toward the divine and the supernatural and how they affect a person's thoughts and actions)

15. SEX ROLES: (how a person views, understands, and related to members of the opposite sex and what deviations are allowed and expected)

16. SPACE & PROXEMICS: (attitudes toward self and land; the accepted distances between individuals within a culture)

17. SUBSISTENCE: (attitudes about providing for oneself, the young, and the old, and who protects whom)

18. TABOOS: (attitudes and beliefs about doing things against culturally accepted patterns)

19. CONCEPTS OF TIME: (attitudes toward being early, on time, or late)

20. VALUES: (attitudes toward freedom, education, cleanliness, cruelty, crime, etc.)

Source: Gonzales, Frank, Mexican American Culture in the Bilingual Education Classroom. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1978.

POINTS TO REMEMBER ABOUT CULTURE

1. What seems logical, sensible, important, and reasonable to a person in one culture may seem irrational, stupid, and unimportant to an outsider.
2. Feelings of apprehension, loneliness, and lack of confidence are common when visiting another culture.
3. When people talk about other cultures, they tend to describe the differences and not the similarities.
4. It requires experience as well as study to understand the many subtleties of another culture.
5. Understanding another culture is a continuous and not a discrete process.

Source: Shirts, G. R., 1977

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Addressing the Needs of Language Minority Students

PROGRAM EIGHT
ASSESSING AND MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS

Jeff Schwartz
Evaluation Assistance Center - East, Georgetown University

Considerations in the assessment of limited English proficient students

Academic background

1. Education in the native language
    a. Number of years attended school
    b. Types of school experiences
    c. Student abilities in the native language
2. Education in English
    a. Number of years attended school
    b. Student abilities in English

Cultural background

1. Is the student familiar with the activity?
2. Is the student familiar with the content?

Language factors

1. Context
    a. Academic
    b. Social
2. Task
    a. Receptive
    b. Productive
3. Grammar
    a. Basic structures
    b. Short sentences

4. Vocabulary

   a. Homonyms

   b. Idioms

   c. Unknown words

Areas of assessment

Content

Language

Affective and other areas

Formal assessment techniques

SECTION III

ADAPTING MATERIALS AND DEVELOPING LESSON PLANS

In order to integrate language and content, it is often necessary to use standard text and workbook materials. Indeed, since the LEP students will be mainstreamed, it is desirable to prepare them for such materials beforehand. Unfortunately, the level of the texts and workbooks may be inappropriate for some students. In those cases, teachers may want to consider adapting or simplifying content materials.

This section will explain some practical suggestions for adapting and simplifying materials and for developing lesson plans. In Appendix B some original passages from elementary and secondary textbooks are shown along with possible adaptations, followed by sample elementary and secondary lesson plans that use these adapted materials. Included are sample materials adaptations and lesson plans for elementary science, elementary ESL/social studies, secondary science, and secondary ESL/math.

Strategies for Simplifying and Adapting Materials

It is most important to present the main ideas of a passage in a clear and precise manner. The **pivotal pieces of information should be stated first** and wherever possible, in a printed form that highlights their importance (e.g., bold print, underscoring, outlines, etc.). Stylistic composition is not the goal of adapted materials.

For the sentence and paragraph formation of the adaptation:

- **Put the topic sentence first**, with supporting detail in the following sentences.
- **Reduce the number of words** in a sentence **and the number of sentences** in a paragraph.
- **Word order is important**. There is no need to be fancy with the position of clauses and phrases. Use the subject-verb-object pattern for most sentences.

For the vocabulary terms:

- **Simplify the vocabulary** that will be used, but retain the key concept terms.
- **Do not use a lot of synonyms** in the body of the text.
- **Introduce new vocabulary with clear definitions and repeat** those new words as frequently as possible within the text passage.

For the grammar structures:

- **Use the simpler verb tenses**, such as the present, simple past, and simple future.
- **Imperatives** are good to use for materials that require following directions, such as a laboratory assignment.

- **Write in the active voice**, not the passive. For example, instead of writing, "The Declaration of Independence was signed by John Hancock," write "John Hancock signed The Declaration of Independence."

- **Use pronouns judiciously**, only in cases where their antecedents are obvious.

- **Be careful with indefinite words like "it," "there," and "that"** at the beginning of sentences. Instead of writing, "There are many children working on computers," simply write, "Many children are working on computers."

- **Eliminate relative clauses** with "who," "which," "whom" wherever possible. Make the clause into a separate sentence.

- **Minimize the use of negatives**. Use the negatives with verbs, rather than negations like "no longer" or "hardly."

- **Try to preserve the features of the text that convey meaning**. For example, it is important to familiarize the students with sequence markers (e.g., first, second), transition words (e.g., although, however), and prioritizing terms (e.g., most important), since they need to learn how to recognize them. The degree of sophistication for these features, however, depends on the students' language proficiency.

For the content of the adaptation:

- **Use charts and graphs, timelines, photographs, and pictures**. Put real graphics into the materials to aid the LEP students' understanding of the prose. Increasing the comprehensibility of the information is not the only goal of using such visual presentations, though. Because academic language is not always linear, students must learn to master methods for discerning and extracting information from charts and timelines.

- **Begin with concrete** examples and explanations and **then move to abstract** concepts and interpretations. Have students share what they know about the topic first.

- **Reduce the amount of text** by trying to eliminate some of the unnecessary detail. Focus on the course/lesson objectives determined in the planning stages.

- **Try to relate the material to the students' own experiences**. If possible, change character and place names to reflect the students' own countries. Use examples that may be familiar to them.

Developing Lesson Plans

Integrated lessons have both content and language objectives. It is often useful to specify target critical thinking or study skills as well. A teacher's or school district's preferred lesson format can then be used to develop the lesson. Typical phases include warm-up or motivating activities, presentation of new material, in whole group or small group work, discussion or application of new material, some reading/writing activities, a wrap-up or assessment segment to check student understanding, and extension activities to reinforce and/or extend the concepts covered. A series of lessons which are thematically linked into units provide for sustained interests as well as the opportunity to build systematically on prior activities.

It is important to note that teachers may not have time to incorporate all these suggestions into their lesson plans every day, but should try to vary the activities they plan. Certain strategies are more critical than others. These are:

1. The selection of principal vocabulary terms to teach before a reading exercise,

2. The opportunity to discuss the material orally, preferably before any written work is assigned, and

3. The provision of class activities for student-to-student interaction.

It is also worthwhile reviewing the adapted materials to ensure that all major pieces of information are included. The adaptation should not be "watered down," although it is intended to be linguistically simpler and presented in a structure that is easier to comprehend.

RESOURCES: TEACHING CONTENT AREAS THROUGH ESL STRATEGIES

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Houston, C. (1986). English language development across the curriculum. Queensland, Australia: Department of Education, Division of Special Education.

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ESL LITERACY AND THE NEW REFUGEES: PRIORITIES AND CONSIDERATIONS

Joyce Penfield

Abstract

An influx of non-English speaking refugees with only minimal schooling has created new curriculum questions for ESL teaching. Teachers are faced with the tasks of helping students develop communicative skills in English and initial literacy skills at the same time. New refugees share certain socio-cultural commonalities. This background influences the learning context in the classroom. Adult education and vocational ESL curriculum models which might be more appropriate for this population are examined.

Introduction

The history of the United States is a history of immigrants and refugees. Our social and economic progress was built upon the sweat and toil of successive waves of newcomers. In the past decade, the U.S. has received at least one million legal refugees who offer a new dimension of pluralism (U.S. Department of State). Rather than coming to become rich, these individuals immigrate to have an opportunity to live free of oppression and strife. Unfortunately, the conventional wisdom for teaching these new refugees is sadly deficient. The unique socio-cultural background which they bring deserves careful study so that more adequate approaches can be developed to integrate them fully into the English-speaking society. As research on the acquisition process of refugees gradually accumulates, some of the current assumptions in adult education must be challenged.

Over two-thirds of the refugees who have immigrated to the United States legally since 1975 have come from Southeast Asia (Huyck & Bouvier, 1983, pp. 39-61). The first wave of these refugees consisted for the most part of persons who had been educated and who had worked for Western firms previously. However, the more recent arrivals who have entered since 1980 generally have had little or no schooling, are semi-literate or nonliterate in any language, and have never held a position in a Western setting (Longfield, 1984). There is growing evidence that this latter group of "new refugees" is encountering very grave problems in resettlement, in the acquisition of English oral and writing skills, and in obtaining employment.

The absence of English language communication skills is a major barrier to refugee employment. This was demonstrated in a study of 35,000 refugees in the San Diego area (Strand, 1983, pp. 59-63). Literacy skills were found to be an important component of the barrier since only those refugees who were able to write in English were employed.

The Setting

A high percentage of the new refugees come from Third World countries where political strife and oppression have been violent forces in their lives. The illiteracy rates of those over 15 years of age in the countries from which many of the new refugees derive is as follows: Afghanistan--90%; Cambodia--45%; El Salvador--43%; Haiti--90%; Laos--88%; Nicaragua--50%; and Vietnam--75% ("Illiteracy," 1980, pp. 64-66).

Although several of these countries have strong literacy tradition and most do have orthographic systems available for the various languages spoken there, the illiteracy rates among the masses are high. In many cases, the elite alone have participated in schooling and literacy. However, the new refugees and some of the early arrivals are part of the masses rather than the elite.

There are similarities in background which many of the new refugees share other than illiteracy even though their cultures are diverse. Many of them come from agrarian communities where work involves living off the land rather than exchanging a particular service or labor for money. These communities rely almost totally upon oral-based forms of communication and tend to be extremely homogeneous and closed in membership. Also, kinship relations are primary in their lives. Religion and the use of sacred sanctions to control moral conduct are other important dimensions in their culture. Redfield's concept of "folk communities" (1962) from which the above is derived can help ESL teachers and administrators to become more aware of the extreme socio-cultural contrasts with which ESL adult students must deal in their resettlement in the United States.

What are some of these contrasts? The new setting for the new arrivals is an urban one in which the skills of living off the land are totally inapplicable. The new life demands a complex technological orientation for which they have had no previous preparation. They must now participate in heterogeneous communities which rely heavily upon both oral and written-based forms of communication and which include a high degree of impersonality. In such a fast-moving technological world, they find that religion and sacred sanctions are rarely integrated into daily life as they were in their original communities. Since some of these new refugees come from other than Judeo-Christian backgrounds, they may find that maintaining even the most ritualistic practices of their faith becomes a major struggle in the American cultural context.

The impact that such extensive cultural differences might have on the acquisition of literacy and oral English skills among the new refugees remains to be studied. There is research in the French Canadian context suggesting that regular second language programs may not be able to provide the environment conducive to learning which is so desperately needed by many of the new refugees (D'Anglejan, 1984, p. 21). A study (D'Anglejan, Renaud, Arseneault, & Lortie, 1981) of why some refugees appeared to be virtually unable to communicate in French after having received 900 hours of language instruction suggested the need for alternative programs suited to their needs. The second language classroom not only may be inadequate to meet refugee learning styles but may also in some cases act as a barrier to successful resettlement by shielding students from authentic communicative opportunities in the second language.

There are other components of the barrier impeding the new refugees. These deal with the question of literacy. Numerous scholars have argued that literacy is more than an independent cognitive task of learning to read and write. Literacy can be conceptualized as a way of processing information which affects ways of interaction (Scollon & Scollon, 1981). In a study of nonliterate and preliterate societies in the world, literacy was viewed as a way of getting information and of handling that world (Goody, 1968). Others hold that:

> Literacy is not simply a result of teaching someone to read by some method and evaluating by some standardized test. The issues surrounding literacy

> are blurred and confused by language differences, social attitudes towards language, language teaching and language learning, politics, economics, psychology, and law. (Goodman, Goodman, & Flores, 1978).

In short, social organization is a critical framework in which both the acquisition of literacy and a second language must be placed. The social context in which refugees find themselves in this acquisition process has implications for program development, curriculum, and teaching strategies.

ESL Literacy

The research dealing with limited English proficiency (LEP) learners has been concerned with the relationship between literacy skills in the first language and the acquisition of second language and literacy skills. For children, the research of Mondiano (1968) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1979) is often cited to support the view that the development of literacy skills in one's own language results in faster and more successful acquisition of literacy skills in the second language. Skutnabb-Kangas (1979) even goes so far as to claim that inadequate development of literacy skills in the first language impedes cognitive development in the second language.

More recently there have been claims that first language literacy skills result in greater competency in the use of the second language and in literacy skills among adult refugees. An investigation of the effects of prior formal education and of previously acquired native language literacy on the ESL classroom performance of Hmong refugees indicated that native language literacy had a significant effect on the acquisition of English in the classroom (Robson, 1981). A study in the Haitian community in Brooklyn, conducted by researchers of the Center for Applied Linguistics and funded by the Ford Foundation, is currently being conducted to explore systematically the extent to which native language literacy instruction facilitates mastery of a second language. Their preliminary findings suggest that those adults receiving literacy instruction in Haitian Creole acquire English language and literacy skills more quickly than those who do not receive such native language literacy instruction. In addition, they note a change in attitudes and self-identity produced by native language literacy development even though this instruction takes place in the nonstandardized language of Haitian Creole (Burtoff, 1984).

The arguments in favor of preceding second language and literacy development are strong; however, students in a given classroom represent a great variety of different native languages, making adult bilingual education models impossible. In the case of Spanish, where there are enough students of the same native language to offer adult bilingual education classes, the availability of instructors qualified to deliver native language literacy instruction may be equally problematic.

There are various approaches to ESL literacy instruction followed in adult education. Some programs delay literacy training until a degree of oral proficiency has been achieved. Others simultaneously integrate the teaching of all three skills of speaking, reading, and writing (Ranard, 1984, p. 1). Currently, there is no available research on the advantages or disadvantages of one approach over any other. Experience suggests that no matter which approach is followed, poor achievement results when courses do not separate students by literacy levels. Adult education courses typically have students of various language proficiency levels in the same class, and it is now equally common to find adult students of various literacy levels also in the same classes. The effects of this mixture on the progress of nonliterates needs to be examined. Not only are the demands greater upon the nonliterate ESL learner, but also anxiety is heightened because such individuals are placed at such a great disadvantage in comparison with other students.

Since ESL literacy research is only in its beginning stages, the training to teach initial literacy skills in a second language is in its infancy. Few ESL teachers have been prepared to teach initial literacy to adults, and in the same way few reading teachers have been prepared to teach ESL. This is paradoxical but understandable. Neither group has been trained to teach adults to read and write for the first time in a second language which students have not yet acquired even minimally. Consequently, no identifiable ESL literacy methodology appropriate for adults has yet been formulated. While a great deal is now known about initial second language literacy instruction for children, this information may not be applicable to adult ESL literacy instruction. There is also a scarcity of available ESL literacy materials to help teachers. In addition to in-service education, materials for individualizing classroom instruction are badly needed.

In short, teachers need to become sensitized to the difficulties involved in becoming literate for the first time in a language which is also being learned for the first time. Too often ESL teachers are unaware that even in their teaching of oral language skills, they are relying heavily upon literacy skills. The absence of training of teachers of ESL literacy and the scarcity of materials create yet another problem. The teachers fail to distinguish between behavior emanating from an absence of either schooling or literacy of any kind and learning disabilities. Out of frustration they may place these students in the second category.

In ESL/Literacy for Adult Learners, Haverson and Haynes (1982) suggest a series of preliteracy activities to develop listening skills, motor skills, visual perception, psychological readiness, physical readiness, and other cognitive skills. What happens if these preliteracy skills are assumed by the teacher to be present but are actually lacking in the nonliterate learner? Is it not likely that acute learning difficulties will soon emerge? If one makes an analogy with the current vogue of computer literacy, how difficult would it be to learn to program in any computer language if one did not know how to type or did not understand the numerical logic upon which that system is based? It is far too common for even the best intentioned teacher to conclude that adult nonliterates encountering acute difficulties in ESL literacy are "learning disabled." Such empty labels solve no problems and only do harm to the learner. Teachers must be cautioned against blaming the students for their failure to learn rather than considering that the problem lies in an inappropriate teaching methodology.

Social Organization of ESL Literacy

There is some research evidence to suggest that nonliterate, unschooled, limited English proficient adults encounter difficulty acquiring both a second language and initial literacy in a classroom setting. This may be so because classrooms are poor learning environments for them. In her large-scale investigation of refugees in Canada, D'Anglejan (1984) compared the successful and unsuccessful adult learner. She found that low levels of schooling, marginal literacy or illiteracy, and high levels of anxiety characterized the unsuccessful adult learner (p. 22). Her investigation also revealed that poor learners tended to be from rural backgrounds and consequently had difficulty adjusting to urban conditions. Those who had failed to acquire the second language had experienced very little contact with native speakers of that language. Their primary contact with the language was in the classroom in which, paradoxically, language was treated as an academic subject rather than as an authentic and meaningful tool for students to accomplish tasks in their own lives (p. 22).

In the context of current theories of second language acquisition, it is highly possible that nonliterate, unschooled refugees may acquire language most easily in naturalistic and informal ways as children do in acquiring a second language. D'Anglejan (1984) infers this in her observation that:

> Those with little or no schooling may be accustomed to acquiring important skills and knowledge in settings very different from classroom where active participation in tasks and tacit observation of the performance of others are the privileged modes of learning (p. 22).

Perhaps language learning for such a population can and should take place in nonacademic, nonformal settings. Given the critical needs of most refugees for employment, this implication should translate into alternative program approaches which seek to relate employment and ESL literacy acquisition.

Statistics shed light on the urgent need for more appropriate program approaches. Of the refugees in the United States, 52% were receiving welfare assistance in September of 1982 (Report of the Undersecretary of Health & Human Services, 1982). Again there are extreme differences between early and new refugees in employment. Among those from Indo-Chinese countries, the 1975 arrivals have over a 90% employment rate whereas the 1980 arrivals have less than a 35% employment rate (Strand, 1984, p. 52). Since employment rates have been directly linked to proficiency in English, many public assistance programs make enrollment in ESL adult education course a precondition for receiving public assistance. There is no assurance, however, that such courses will be linked directly to employment experience or vocational preparation.

Occasionally, programs funded through the Private Industry Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) offer job training to unemployed, limited-English speakers. Unfortunately, such programs frequently lay down unrealistic literacy and language requirements for entrance. For nonliterate adults who do gain entrance, the employment goals are often impossible to achieve. In several instances, adults who were unable to read at even a minimal level were counseled to become typists. For example, the interpretation of the JTPA in New Jersey specifies the jobs for which clients can be prepared. Omitted are occupations which require far less language and literacy skills such as gardening, housekeeping, and food services.

The separation of ESL training from vocational training and counseling plagues both JTPA programs and vocational ESL programs. This is especially true when language proficiency is a precondition for occupational preparation and work experience. Such a compartmentalization of learning tasks actually leads to the obstruction of language acquisition since this isolates the refugee population from contact with native speakers of the second language. To be successful, programs must integrate vocational preparation into ESL curriculum.

The sheltered-workshop approach can be used for ESL training (D'Anglejan, 1984, p. 23). Here students would be placed in carefully prepared second language work environments in which they would have contact with sensitive native speakers. In weekly meetings with second language teachers, they would discuss their experience and obtain help with specific language problems and other adjustment difficulties. Such an approach has been used successfully in U.S. communities with physically and mentally handicapped adults. A sheltered workshop program would place refugees in authentic communicative situations which give them an opportunity to acquire the second language as a form of social behavior in a naturalistic and informal context.

There is evidence of some attempt to approximate this method. In her work with Hmong refugees in West Philadelphia, Weinstein (1984, pp. 471-484) sought ways to integrate ESL literacy acquisition in the context of Hmong daily life. She initiated English literacy and language activities which helped the Hmong women to become financially independent. This was done by matching their specific skills such as the production of handicrafts to communicative language necessary in negotiating their sales with speakers of English. In addition she taught them literacy through food recipes of their own. Thus by capitalizing on the Hmong life style, Weinstein was able to create the condition for a variety of meaningful literacy activities.

Another attempt to integrate literacy and language skills with vocational preparation was carried out in a special 310 project in New Jersey (Penfield, in press). The aim of the project was to develop a curriculum and teaching methodology emphasizing prevocational and other employment skills for unskilled, beginning level ESL adults who were either nonliterate or semi-literate. The project was intended to integrate minimal language competence, vocational training, and literacy preparation necessary to lead to successful apprenticeship opportunities for the learners. An extremely useful transition from apprenticeship to eventual employment was the use of the volunteer system at a local university hospital.

In the process of creating a curriculum utilizing the ethnographic tools of participant observation at the hospital, valuable lessons about the integration of ESL and employment preparation were learned. Among these the following may be briefly noted.

1. A close partnership between industry and adult education is a necessary priority for a successful vocational ESL program.

2. A necessary precondition for the development of authentic materials is the participation and observation on the job site in the particular company or industry. Only through trust and a personal relationship can entry into a particular industry be obtained.

3. To create an authentic curriculum, teachers must acquire an in-depth understanding of the work setting and the social functions of language demanded of the specific jobs for which they are preparing students.

4. For eventual apprenticeship experience to be successful, the teacher must play the role of liaison and ongoing consultant between personnel in the work setting and the student. The teacher should monitor the success and progress of the student, providing the necessary help when needed.

5. Teachers must also upon occasion play the role of advocate for the refugee, smoothing out cross-cultural conflicts which arise between the supervisor, worker, and the adult student apprentice.

Conclusion

Existing adult education programs which seek to help refugees who are nonliterate learn the dominant language and obtain jobs have often been unsuccessful. It can be questioned if formal language learning in the classroom is the appropriate context for language acquisition among non-English speaking, nonliterate individuals coming from agrarian-based economies. Researchers have pointed the way to some new programmatic approaches which integrate communicative competence, initial literacy in the dominant language, and vocational training simultaneously. The need is for additional research on the complex issue of ESL literacy.

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